

THE LITERARY GAZETTE

AND
Journal of the Belles Lettres, Science, and Art.

No. 1938.

LONDON, SATURDAY, MARCH 11, 1854.

Price Fourpence.
Stamped Edition, Fivepence.

BRITISH INSTITUTION, Pall Mall.—The
Gallery for the Exhibition and Sale of the Works of British
Artists is Open Daily, from Ten till Five.—Admission Is, Catalogue 6d.
GEORGE NICOL, Secretary.

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Square.—NOTICE TO ARTISTS.—All Works of Painting,
Sculpture, Architecture, or Engraving, intended for the ensuing
Exhibition at the Royal Academy, must be sent in on Monday, the
3rd, or Tuesday the 4th of April next, after which time no work can
have already been received, nor can any works be received which
have already been publicly exhibited.

ALL Pictures and Drawings must be in Glit Frames.
Oil Paintings under Glass, and Drawings with wide margins, are
inadmissible. Excessive breadth in frames, as well as projecting
mouldings, may prevent pictures obtaining the situation they
otherwise merit.

The other regulations necessary to be observed may be obtained
at the Royal Academy. J. PELLISSON KNIGHT, R.A., Sec.

Every possible care will be taken of Works sent for Exhibition;
but the Royal Academy will not hold itself accountable in any
case of injury or loss; nor can it undertake to pay the carriage of
any Package.

The Prices of Works to be disposed of may be communicated
to the Secretary.

21, Regent-street.

HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.
PRIVILEGED TICKETS.—The Exhibitions will take place
on the Second Saturday in May, and the 1st of July—namely, May
13, June 10, July 8. All Fellows, who shall apply, will be
admitted free. The Society, on the 25th of April, may obtain, at the rate of Three Shillings
and Sixpence each, any number of Tickets not exceeding
Twenty-six; but no application for such tickets will be received
after that day. Fellows of the Society subscribing for tickets at
this rate, may allow a clear week from the 25th of April
during which they may claim them. AFTER THAT PERIOD ALL THE
26. TICKETS SUBSCRIBED AT THIS RATE MAY BE CANCELLED.

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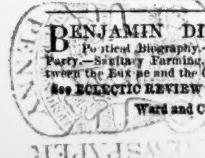
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REVIEWS.

History of Oliver Cromwell and the English Commonwealth, from the Execution of Charles I. to the Death of Cromwell. By M. Guizot. Translated by Andrew R. Scoble, Bentley.

For M. Guizot, as a man and as an author, we have the highest respect; but we must say that the history of Cromwell and of the English Commonwealth is a subject above his reach. We doubt if any foreigner can fully enter into the spirit of our national character at that period, however well versed in the theory of the English constitution, and accurately informed as to the events that took place. So far as diligent study of historical documents, and honest endeavours after impartiality, with soundness of judgment and ability of style, qualified for the task, M. Guizot had advantages possessed by no other living foreigner. He has given as faithful and clear a history of the English Commonwealth as could be compiled from the written records of the time; and he has drawn the character and described the career of Cromwell as well as could be expected from his study of the conflicting accounts of contemporary authors. Yet the work is far from satisfactory. M. Guizot's mind is too much bound by philosophical theories and political traditions to enter into the extraordinary and unprecedented position of English affairs after the death of Charles the First. There were elements at work then, religious rather than social or political, which have not borne the same part in the revolutions of continental countries. Where these spiritual motives prevailed, many things seem strange and unaccountable, if measured only by rules of ordinary human affairs. To the same influence is to be referred much that is difficult in the characters of the chief actors in these events. When Cromwell began to act openly against the laws and constitution, he boldly avowed it. "What is your Magna Charta to me, if the thing is right and necessary?" he once said. When he went down to dissolve the Long Parliament, he said that "a necessity was laid upon him therein, in order to the glory of God and the good of the nation." And, in his remarks on another important event of the Protector's life, M. Guizot says, "He appealed to necessity, and doubtless believed himself reduced by circumstances to act as he did." It is true that the same plea might be urged by any tyrant, and the question returns as to the motives of Cromwell's conduct. We wish that M. Guizot had shown always more independence in judging of the Protector's words and actions, and allowed himself to be influenced less by the opinions of others. Where formal remarks on his character are attempted, there is evidently a balancing of authorities, and a cautious reserve in the statements; but on other occasions, where comments naturally occur in the course of the narrative, the generous admiration of the Protector cannot be suppressed. The most contradictory impressions are thereby conveyed by different passages of the work. We suspect that the real character of Cromwell is as much a riddle to M. Guizot at the close of his labours as when he first commenced his inquiry. His perplexity is very well expressed in the opening paragraph of the work, where he refers to his former volumes on the beginning of the English Revolution:—

"In the previous portion of this history, I have related the downfall of an ancient monarchy, and the violent death of a king who was worthy of respect, although he governed his people badly and unjustly. I have now to relate the vain efforts of a revolutionary assembly to found a republic; and to describe the ever-trotting, but strong and glorious government of a revolutionary despot, whose bold and prudent genius commands our admiration, although he attacked and destroyed, first legal order, and then liberty, in his native land. The men whom God chooses as the instruments of his great designs are full of contradiction and of mystery; in them are mingled and combined, in undiscoverable proportions, capabilities and failings, virtues and vices, enlightenment and error, grandeur and weakness; and after having filled the age in which they lived with the splendour of their actions and the magnitude of their destiny, they remain personally obscure in the midst of their glory, alternately cursed and worshipped by the world which does not know them."

It can hardly be said that Cromwell remains personally obscure in the midst of his glory, and at least enough is now known of him to render the cursing or the worship of extreme bigots on either side contemptible. Those whose enthusiastic admiration of the man is greatest, need not approve all his public proceedings; while even in his own day, they who were most sternly hostile to his usurpation had no evil to say of him. Milton's noble and disinterested panegyric has all the more weight that he was an ardent Republican:—

"Cromwell! our chief of men, who through a cloud
Not of war only, but detraction rude,
Guided by faith and matchless fortitude,
To peace and truth thy glorious way hast ploughed,
And on the necks of crowned fortune proud
Hast rear'd God's trophies, and His work pursued."

Merle d'Aubigné has, in his *Essay on the Protector*, given a far truer and more generous sketch of his character than Guizot has ventured to do. But except as a matter of literary or biographical curiosity, it is of little moment what estimates of Cromwell are now submitted by authors. In the records of English history, and in Cromwell's own letters and papers as published by Carlyle, the public have the means of forming their own judgment; and that judgment is more favourable than M. Guizot's book will lead his countrymen to suppose. But we must present some specimens of the manner in which the work is written, commencing with the account of the celebrated Barebones Parliament, which is generally mentioned in history only with ridicule, but which M. Guizot has the candour to speak of with the honour due to its earnest but misdirected labours:—

"It was not, as some have stated, composed entirely of men of obscure origin and low condition; it included many names illustrious by birth or achievements, and a considerable number of country gentlemen and citizens of importance in their respective towns and counties, landed proprietors, merchants, tradesmen, or artisans. Most of its members were unquestionably men of orderly life, neither spendthrifts nor in debt, not seekers after employments or adventures, but devotedly attached to their country and their religion, and deficient neither in courage nor in independence. But their habits, their ideas, and even their virtues were narrow and petty, like the social position of most of them. They had more private honesty than political intelligence and spirit; and, notwithstanding the uprightness of their intentions, the probity of their character, and the earnestness of their piety, they were incapable of feeling, and even of comprehending, the high mission to which the will of Cromwell had called them.

"They began, however, by appropriating to

themselves the name, the forms, and all the external signs of their new rank. They transferred their sittings to Westminster, to the room in which the House of Commons had formerly met. There they received and solemnly read an instrument, signed by the Lord General and his officers, which devolved upon them the supreme authority, and imposed on them an obligation not to retain it after the 3rd of November, 1654, but three months before that time, to make choice of other persons to succeed them, who were not to sit longer than a year, and were then to determine the future government of the country. They resolved, after a long debate, and by a majority of sixty-five votes against forty-six, that they would assume the name of the Parliament. They elected as their Speaker Mr. Francis Rouse, who had been a member of the Long Parliament; ordered that the mace, which Cromwell had removed, should be replaced on their table; appointed a Council of State of thirty-one members, with instructions similar to those given to the preceding Council; and, in short, resumed all the prerogatives and re-established all the usages of the expelled Parliament.

"Cromwell and his officers had made them a Parliament; to show their gratitude, they voted, in their turn, that the Lord General, Major-Generals Lambert, Harrison, and Desborough, and Colonel Tomlinson should be invited to sit with them as members of the House.

"On the day on which they installed themselves at Westminster, they devoted nearly their whole sitting to pious exercises; not, as the previous Parliament had done, by attending sermons preached by specially appointed ministers, but by themselves engaging in spontaneous prayers, without the assistance of any professional ecclesiastic. Eight or ten members often spoke in succession, invoking the Divine blessing on their labours, or commenting on passages of Scripture; 'and some affirmed,' says one of them, 'they never enjoyed so much of the spirit and presence of Christ in any of the meetings and exercises of religion in all their lives as they did that day.' They therefore persisted in this practice, and instead of appointing a chaplain every day, as soon as a few members had arrived, one of them engaged in prayer, and others followed him, until a sufficient number had assembled to open the sitting and begin business. On the day after their installation, they voted that a special day should be devoted to the solemn invocation of the Divine blessing upon their future acts; and having discharged this duty, with a view to induce the nation to join its prayers to their own, for the same purpose, they published a declaration, which is expressive at once of proud hopes, of mystical enthusiasm, and of feelings of the deepest humility. 'We declare ourselves,' they said, 'to be the Parliament of the Commonwealth of England. . . . When we look upon ourselves, we are much afraid, and tremble at the mighty work and heavy weight before us, which we justly acknowledge far above, and quite beyond, our strength to wield or poise; so that we oft cry out and say with Jehoshaphat, O Lord, we know not what to do, but our eye is towards thee! . . . We hope that God, in His great and free goodness, will not forsake his people; and that we may be fitted and used as instruments in His hand, that all oppressing yokes may be broken, and all burdens removed, and the loins also of the poor and needy may be filled with blessing; that all nations may turn their swords and spears into ploughshares and pruning-hooks, that the wolf may feed with the lamb, and the earth be full of the knowledge of God, as waters cover the sea. This is all we say, If this undertaking be from God, let Him prosper and bless it, and let every one take heed of fighting against God; but if not, let it fall, though we fall before it.'

"Thus strengthened and confident, they set to work finally to effect those reforms which had been so long and so earnestly desired. Twelve committees were appointed for this purpose; two were intrusted with the settlement of the affairs of Scotland and Ireland, and their incorporation with England; a third had instructions to prepare

various measures of law reform; and to a fourth was submitted the question of tithes, which was regarded with the liveliest interest, not only by the clergy and sectaries, but also by political men generally. The naval and military establishments, the public revenue, the public debts and frauds upon the State, petitions, commerce, and corporations, the condition of the poor, the state of the prisons, the promotion of education, and the advancement of learning, occupied the attention of eight other committees. The bills thus prepared were to be immediately submitted to the Parliament for discussion, and voted upon without delay.

"The ardour and assiduity of these committees, and of the Parliament itself, in their respective labours, were great. The Parliament voted that it would meet at eight o'clock in the morning of every day in the week, excepting Sunday. Neither the committees nor the Council of State were to meet while the Parliament was sitting, for the presence of all their members was required in the House itself, and they had to attend to their special missions before and after the general sittings of the House. In a short time, they presented numerous reports to Parliament; the question of tithes, reforms in civil and criminal law, the administration of the finances, the condition and payment of the army, the settlement of debts and the division of lands in Ireland, pauperism, prisons, and petitions formed, one after another, the subjects of long and animated debates. A sincere zeal animated the assembly; questions and considerations of private interest had but little influence in their deliberations; like bold and honest men, their only thought was how they might best serve and reform the State.

"But two contingencies which popular reformers never foresee, obstacles and speculative theories, soon arose. In order to accomplish great reforms in a great society, without destroying its peace, the legislator must possess extraordinary wisdom and a high position: reforms, when they originate with the lower classes, are inseparable from revolutions. The Parliament of Cromwell's election was neither sufficiently enlightened, nor sufficiently influential to reform English society, without endangering its tranquillity; and as, at the same time, it was neither so insane, nor so perverse, nor so strong, as blindly to destroy instead of reforming, it soon became powerless, in spite of its honesty and courage, and ridiculous, because it combined earnestness with impotence.

"It found, however, one part of its task in a very advanced state: the two committees which the Long Parliament had appointed in 1651, one consisting of members of the House and the other of private individuals, for the purpose of preparing a scheme of law-reform, had left a large body of materials, in which most of the questions mooted were solved, and the solutions even given at length. Twenty-one bills,—seventeen on various points of judicial organization and civil legislation, and four on points of criminal law and police regulations, as to religion and morals, were ready prepared to receive the force of laws by the vote of the House. The new Parliament ordered that they should be reprinted and distributed among its members. After long debates, however, four measures of reform were alone carried; one to place under the control of the civil magistrates, the celebration and registration of marriages, and the registration of births and deaths; the other three, for the relief of creditors and poor prisoners for debt, for the abolition of certain fines, and for the redress of certain delays in procedure. The collection of taxes, the concentration of all the revenues of the State in one public treasury, and the administration of the army and navy, also formed the subject of regulations which put an end to grave abuses. The question of the distribution of confiscated lands in Ireland, first among the subscribers to the various public loans, and then among the disbanded officers and soldiers, was finally settled. The salaries of the persons employed in several departments of the public service were reduced; and serious and persevering efforts were made to meet all the expenses, and discharge all the liabilities of the State. In these

administrative matters, important, though but secondary, the Parliament was guided by a spirit of order, probity, and economy, highly honourable to itself and useful to the State, though frequently narrow and harsh in its application."

Of Cromwell's enlightened and liberal behaviour towards the English universities, M. Guizot speaks with due praise, as well as of his general conduct towards learned and scientific men:—

"Cromwell, at the age of seventeen, had spent a year at the university of Cambridge; in 1651, he had been elected Chancellor of the university of Oxford. His mind was great, because it was just, perspicacious, and thoroughly practical: at the same time that he appreciated the social utility of these noble schools of learning, he was charmed by their intellectual beauty. He felt that their destruction would be a source of degradation to his country, and of dishonour to himself; and he therefore took them under his protection. In order to defend them against their enemies, he introduced into them several men, who had once been passionate sectaries themselves, but who had become attached to his fortune and submissive to his influence; among others, two of his chaplains, Thomas Goodwin and John Owen, both of them men of great talent and ability; and he appointed the latter his Vice-Chancellor at Oxford. From this introduction of heterogeneous elements, the traditions and manners of the university received some partial and temporary modification. Owen made alterations in the costumes and ceremonies at Oxford; instead of conforming to the ancient etiquette of his office, he often, it is said, wore Spanish boots, large knots of ribbon at his knees, and a cocked hat. But he energetically defended the institution itself, in its studies, regulations, and property; and the universities, with their system of education and means of action, were one of those powerful fragments of English society which Cromwell saved from the attacks of the revolution, which had raised him to the sovereign power.

"Nor did he rest satisfied with saving them from ruin; he watched carefully over their prosperity and renown. He presented the university of Oxford with a collection of valuable manuscripts, mostly Greek; and to theological studies, particularly to the publication of the great Polyglot Bible, by Dr. Walton, he granted ready and effectual encouragement. In order to secure the benefit of a learned education to the northern counties, which complained of being too far off to profit by Oxford and Cambridge, he decreed the foundation of a great college at Durham, to be endowed with the property of the abolished deanery and chapter. His mind was neither naturally elegant nor richly cultivated, but his unfettered genius comprehended the necessities of the human intellect; and the great institutions of education and learning were of use to him as means of patronage and government.

"In his conduct towards literary and scientific men themselves, he was guided by the same feelings—by no sympathy as a connoisseur, but by politic benevolence; honouring their labours, noting their influence, eager to be praised, or defended, or treated politely by them, and protecting or conciliating them in his turn, according as they belonged to his own or the opposite party. Most had belonged, or still belonged, to the royalist ranks;—among the poets, Cowley, Denham, Davenant, Cleveland, Waller, and Butler; among philosophers and men of science, Cudworth, Hobbes, Jeremy Taylor, and Usher, were all either in the service, or favourable to the cause, of the Church and Crown. Cromwell was under no delusion as to their principles; but he was careful not to treat them so harshly as to have them for violent enemies; if he found them involved in any party intrigue, if even they were arrested, he never failed to order their release; if he thought it possible, by a little favour or tolerance, to gain their adherence or respect, he left no means untried for the purpose. Waller resided, as his cousin, at his court; Cowley and Hobbes were allowed to return from exile; Butler meditated, in the house of one

of Cromwell's officers, his grotesque satires against the fanatical or hypocritical sectaries; Davenant, on his liberation from prison, obtained permission from the Puritan dictator to open a little theatre at Rutland House, for the performance of his comedies. For such amnesty or toleration, these wits had to give some premises of political neutrality, or some piece of poetical flattery; but after having imposed on them these acts of contrition, Cromwell proved neither exacting nor suspicious. When he had to deal with grave and quiet men, he expressed to them his esteem, seeking to live on good terms with them, but never exhibiting a despot's fatuity or pretensions. He directed Thurloe to apply to Cudworth, who was living in learned retirement at Cambridge, for information regarding persons educated in that university who aspired to public employments; to Hobbes, whose political doctrines pleased him, he offered the post of a secretary in his household; Selden and Meric Casaubon were invited by him to write, one an answer to the 'Eikon Basilike,' and the other, a history of the recent civil wars. Both of them declined, and Casaubon even refused a purely gratuitous pension; but Cromwell took no offence. On the death of Archbishop Usher, he was anxious that he should have a solemn funeral in Westminster Abbey, and purchased his library, that it might not be sent to the Continent. He did not always execute all that he had, on the impulse of the moment, promised or planned in matters of this nature. Under the distracting influence of important affairs the most attentive forget, and the most powerful want means, always to accomplish the benevolent designs they may have announced; but if he was not exempt from these shortcomings of supreme power, Cromwell is perhaps, of all sovereigns, the one who is least open to the charge.

"Towards the literary men of the revolutionary party he had less need to act with circumspection. Some of them, Thomas May, Samuel Morland, John Pell, Owen, Goodwin, Nye, and a great many other dissenting theologians, were either irretrievably pledged to his cause, or actively engaged as members of his government. Others, among whom Milton stands supreme, were ardent republicans, whom the illusions of fancy, the sophisms of interest, or the pressure of circumstances held in allegiance to a despot, in the name of the principles of liberty. Cromwell, profiting by his ascendancy, kept them in his service, but without showing affection for them or placing confidence in them. When he became Protector he appointed another Latin secretary to his Council of State in addition to Milton, and an order of the Council deprived Milton, who had already become blind, of the lodgings which he occupied in Whitehall. He continued to receive his salary; he continued to write Latin despatches; he was more than once supplied with funds to afford liberal hospitality at his house and table to such foreign literary men as came to visit England; but he was admitted neither into the State secrets nor into the intimacy of the Protector, to whom, as opportunity offered, he occasionally addressed the warmest eulogies and the most generous advice."

The treatment of Harrington, and his political romance, the 'Oceana,' is a characteristic instance of Cromwell's government when in the fulness of his power. His own comments on the affair give the true account of his position, when he described himself as "forced to take upon himself the office of a high-constable, to preserve the peace among the several parties of the nation, who, being left to themselves, would never agree to any certain form of government, and would only spend their power in defeating the designs or destroying the persons of one another."

"Being informed that Harrington was about to publish his republican Utopia, the 'Oceana,' he ordered the manuscript to be seized at the printer's and brought to Whitehall. After vain endeavours to obtain its restoration, Harrington, in despair, resolved to apply to the Protector's favourite

daughter, Lady Claypole, who was known to be a friend to literary men, and always ready to intercede for the unfortunate. While he was waiting for her in an ante-room, some of Lady Claypole's women passed through the room, followed by her daughter, a little girl three years of age. Harrington stopped the child, and entertained her so amusingly that she remained listening to him until her mother entered. 'Madam,' said the philosopher, setting down the child, whom he had taken in his arms, 'tis well you are come at this nick of time, or I had certainly stolen this pretty little lady.' 'Stolen her!' replied the mother, 'pray what to do with her?' 'Madam,' said he, 'though her charms assure her a more considerable conquest, yet I must confess it is not love, but revenge, that prompted me to commit this theft.' 'Lord!' answered the lady again, 'what injury have I done you that you should steal my child?' 'None at all,' replied he, 'but that you might be induced to prevail with your father to do me justice, by restoring my child that he has stolen;' and he explained to Lady Claypole the cause of his complaint. She immediately promised to procure his book for him, if it contained nothing prejudicial to her father's government. He assured her it was only a kind of political romance, and so far from any treason against her father, that he hoped to be permitted to dedicate it to him: and he promised to present her ladyship with one of the earliest copies. Lady Claypole kept her word, and obtained the restitution of the manuscript, and Harrington dedicated his work to the Protector. 'The gentleman,' said Cromwell, after having read it, 'would like to trepan me out of my power; but what I got by the sword I will not quit for a little paper shot. I approve the government of a single person as little as any, but I was forced to take upon me the office of a high-constable, to preserve the peace among the several parties in the nation, since I saw that, being left to themselves, they would never agree to any certain form of government, and would only spend their whole power in defeating the designs or destroying the persons of one another.'

"Few despots have so carefully confined themselves within the limits of practical necessity, and allowed the human mind such a wide range of liberty."

The most valuable part of M. Guizot's work is that which describes the relations of Cromwell's Protectorate with foreign powers, for illustrating which, his researches in the French archives and in other official records have supplied important materials. In the Appendix to both volumes a series of documents appears, most of them for the first time, derived from the Spanish archives of Simancas, the Archives des Affaires Etrangères de France, and from various manuscripts preserved in the libraries of Paris. From these a clearer view is obtained than hitherto of various passages in the Protector's government. Of the position of the English Commonwealth, with respect to the European states generally, the following just account is given:—

"The progress of affairs in England was watched with the closest attention by the European powers, but it did not inspire them with any serious alarm. Though they regarded the English revolutionaries with the utmost antipathy, they did not feel themselves really menaced by them, and their own position did not furnish any necessity for engaging in a direct and open struggle against them. At precisely the same period when royalty was tottering to its fall in England, it was gaining strength on the Continent; in all the great States of Europe, feudal and municipal liberties, the independent aristocracy, and the turbulent democracy of the Middle Ages, were disappearing, or giving way before it; the necessity for order in society, and for unity in the supreme power, everywhere predominated; the general tendency of ideas, as well as of events, was towards monarchy. The Commonwealth appeared a singular fact, purely local in its character, and the contagious influence of

which was not greatly to be dreaded on the Continent, even in those States which were still agitated by civil dissensions.

"The name of Commonwealth, or Republic, moreover, was not then necessarily a cause of distrust and alarm: although that form of Government had, until then, prevailed only in secondary States, it had maintained its place in Europe without disturbing European order by its presence; the great European monarchies had lived on good and peaceable terms with the Republics of Italy, Switzerland, Germany, and the Netherlands. Europe had not yet contracted the habit of considering the republican form of government as the precursor and promoter of revolutions and anarchy.

"The English revolution furthermore presented itself as much in a religious as in a political character. The great wars of religion were now at an end; the treaty of Westphalia had just laid the foundation of a new European order; the Catholic States and the Protestant States had mutually come to an understanding, and among the latter, the most recent and most opposed, the United Provinces, had at length conquered their position and tranquillity. The prevalence of peace between the various Christian communions, if not in the interior of every State, at least in the external relations of countries with one another, had been definitely established; and although religious prejudices and animosities were far from being extinct, neither government nor people were willing to renew a conflict by which all had cruelly suffered, and in which neither party could any longer hope to crush its rival. It is by exhaustion and necessity that God imposes justice and good sense upon nations.

"Religious peace restored liberty to politics; religious passions and creeds no longer regulated the designs and alliances of States; the spirit of ambition or of resistance to ambition, of preponderance or independence, of aggrandizement or equilibrium, became the principal motive of the conduct of governments in their international relations; they sought to obtain thereby means of attack or defence in their temporal hopes or fears, and weapons to serve them in their rivalries. The English revolution profited by this new and purely lay character of continental politics. Of the two great powers, France and Spain, which then contested for the ascendancy in Europe, neither wished to quarrel with the young Commonwealth; they both did their best either to draw it into their camp, or keep it from joining the enemy; and two systems of alliance, more or less complete, and more or less openly avowed between France, England, and the United Provinces on the one side, and between Spain, England, and the United Provinces on the other, were the constant thought of Mazarin and Don Luis de Haro at Paris and Madrid, and the object of the unceasing labours of their agents in London.

"The republican parliament had a just, though confused and incomplete consciousness of its position: it understood that it was detested, but in no respect menaced, by the great European monarchies, and it conducted itself towards them with caution and dignity, but without uneasiness or angry feeling. It showed no anxiety to be recognised by them, neither did it hasten to accredit representatives of the Commonwealth to their courts. Not that it felt no impatience on the subject; it frequently sounded the foreign agents who still remained in England, Bellièvre, Croulé, Cardenas, and Joachim; sometimes in order to learn from them what sort of a reception would be given at their respective courts to the ministers whom the Commonwealth might send, and sometimes to intimate to them that they could not themselves continue to reside in London unless they received from their governments fresh credentials accrediting them to the Parliament."

As the power gradually came to centre in Cromwell, his authority was more cordially recognised abroad:—

"Cromwell had achieved greatness in Europe, and his greatness was not contested on the Con-

tinent as it was in England, for it rested, abroad, on skilful and successful power, unstained by crime or tyranny. If he had not always scrupulously respected the law of nations, he had at least done nothing to reveal a limitless and unbridled ambition; though raised to power by a revolution, he had not sought to revolutionise even those States with which he was on hostile terms; he had been by turns peaceful and warlike, and more frequently peaceful than warlike; with the exception of the defeat of St. Domingo, and that had led to a useful conquest, he had succeeded in all his undertakings. He was bound by sincere friendship to all the Protestant States, in active alliance with the most powerful of Catholic sovereigns—everywhere present, influential, respected, and feared. External testimonies of the respect which his name and powers inspired, reached him from all parts; independently of the foreign ministers who habitually resided at his Court, ambassadors extraordinary were sent from Sweden, Poland, Germany, and Italy, solemnly to present him with the homage or overtures of their masters. Medals, sometimes of quaintly coarse design, were struck in Holland, to celebrate his glory, and humble kings before him. An equestrian portrait of him was displayed in the streets of Paris, accompanied by some disrespectful verses regarding the princes of the Continent. The Grand Duke of Tuscany sent to request his portrait for the picture-gallery of his palace at Florence; and the Venetian ambassador, Giovanni Sagredo, who had come to London from Paris, thus wrote on the 6th of October, 1656, in the peculiar style of his age and country:—'I am now in England: the aspect of this country is very different from that of France; here we do not see ladies going to court, but gentlemen courting the chase; not elegant cavaliers, but cavalry and infantry; instead of music and ballets, they have trumpets and drums; they do not speak of love, but of Mars; they have no comedies, but tragedies; no patches on their faces, but muskets on their shoulders; they do not neglect sleep for the sake of amusement, but severe ministers keep their adversaries in incessant wakefulness.'"

With Cardinal Mazarin, the most influential statesman of that age, Cromwell soon was on a good footing, in spite of the prejudices with which his first approaches were received. The whole of the political affairs in connexion with the rivalry of the French and Spanish powers, and the manner in which they both courted the Protector, are placed in a very clear light by the documents presented by M. Guizot. Mazarin's feeling towards Cromwell himself he thus describes in speaking of the reception of Lockhart, the English ambassador:—

"Lockhart met at first with a cool, and sometimes even disagreeable reception; but he was as adroit as he was high-spirited, and he spoke in the name of a powerful master of whom the Cardinal had need. He quickly surmounted the difficulties of his position, and became the object of Mazarin's caresses, who was too able a statesman not to feel how important it was to secure the good-will of a man of such capacity, and so much influence with the Protector. It is part of the consummate art of great politicians to treat matters simply and frankly when they know they are in presence of rivals who will allow themselves to be neither intimidated nor deceived. Mazarin possessed this art, and Cromwell almost always reduced him to this necessity. There was, between these two men, a constant interchange of concessions and resistances, services and refusals, in which they ran little risk of quarrelling, for they mutually understood each other, and did not require from one another anything which could not be granted, without doing them greater injury than the grant would have done them service."

From the account of Cromwell's domestic affairs, and the family alliances, we give one quotation:—

"Of his four daughters, two, Mary and Frances, remained unmarried; both were young and attractive in manners and appearance: Mary was witty, sensible, active, and high-spirited, fond of excitement and power, ardently devoted to the interests of her family, and a zealous supporter of the views of her father, to whom, it is said, her features bore some resemblance; Frances was pretty, sprightly, gay, tender-hearted, and easily impressionable. A young man of high rank, Thomas Bellasis, Viscount Faulconbridge, returned at about this time from his travels on the Continent, and, as he passed through Paris, he had expressed the most favourable sentiments with regard to the Protector. 'He is a person of extraordinary parts,' wrote Lockhart to Thurloe, on the 21st of March, 1657, 'and hath all those qualities in a high measure that can fit one for his Highness's and the country's service. He seemed to be much troubled for a report he heard, that the enemy gave him out to be a Catholic, and did purge himself from having any inclinations that way.' He is of opinion that the intended settlement will be very acceptable to all the nobility and gentry of the country, save a few, who may be biased by the interests of their relations. Cromwell gladly welcomed his overtures of friendship, and on the 18th of November, 1657, his daughter Mary married Lord Faulconbridge.

Frances, his youngest daughter, had at one time seemed destined to a loftier alliance; Lord Broghill had conceived the idea of marrying her to Charles II., and effecting his restoration on these terms: it is even stated that Charles had signified his willingness to accept such a proposal, and that Lady Dysart (who, according to some authorities, was too intimate a friend of the Protector) had mentioned the matter to the Protectress, who had endeavoured, unsuccessfully, to induce her husband to consent to the match. 'You are a fool,' said Cromwell to his wife; 'Charles Stuart can never forgive me his father's death, and if he can, he is unworthy of the crown.' Failing the King of England, it was proposed that the Lady Frances should wed a French prince, the Duke d'Enghien, eldest son of the Prince of Condé; and a sovereignty, won in the Spanish Netherlands, was to be the price of this alliance. But this idea also fell to the ground, and Cromwell was thinking of marrying his daughter to a wealthy gentleman of Gloucestershire, when he was led to believe, by domestic gossip, that one of his own chaplains, Mr. Jeremy White, a young man of pleasing manners, and 'a top wit of his court,' was secretly paying his addresses to Lady Frances, who was far from discouraging his attentions. Entering his daughter's room suddenly one day, the Protector caught White on his knees, kissing the lady's hand. 'What is the meaning of this?' he demanded. 'May it please your Highness,' replied White, with great presence of mind, pointing to one of the lady's maids who happened to be in the room, 'I have a long time courted that young gentlewoman, and cannot prevail; I was therefore humbly praying her ladyship to intercede for me.' 'How now, bussey!' said Cromwell, to the young woman; 'why do you refuse the honour Mr. White would do you? He is my friend, and I expect you should treat him as such.' 'If Mr. White intends me that honour,' answered the woman, with a very low courtesy, 'I shall not be against him.' 'Say st thou so, my lass?' said Cromwell; 'call Goodwin! this business shall be done presently, before I go out of the room.' Goodwin, the chaplain, arrived; White had gone too far to recede, and he was married on the spot to the young woman, on whom Cromwell bestowed a fitting portion. A short time afterwards, on the 11th of November, 1657, Lady Frances married Robert Rich, grandson of the Earl of Warwick, and heir to that nobleman's influence and estates. Although Lord Warwick was his particular friend, the Protector at the outset placed some difficulties in the way of this marriage, in reference to pecuniary settlements; but the anxiety of Lady Frances herself soon overcame his opposition. 'I must tell you privately,' wrote Mary Cromwell to her brother Henry, 'that they are so far engaged, as the match cannot be broken

off.' The Protector was certainly well pleased with the marriage, for it was celebrated with great pomp; and in the private festivities at Whitehall, he indulged in demonstrations of gaiety which were more indicative of his joy than of his good taste."

The circumstances related by M. Guizot as to Cromwell's interference for the protection of the persecuted Protestants of Piedmont, and the pride he took in the glorious achievements of the fleet under Blake, are utterly inconsistent with the spirit of calculating ambition with which he has been so often charged. If ever unselfish patriotism and generous piety influenced a ruler, it was in these noble incidents of Cromwell's life. Some portions of the history M. Guizot seems to have written with an eye to the affairs of his own country. We have marked several passages which are at least capable of such application.

A Visit to Portugal and Madeira. By the Lady Emmeline Stuart Wortley. Chapman and Hall.

We so fully criticised Lady Emmeline Wortley's giddy style of writing, when noticing her 'Travels in the United States' (L. G. 1851, p. 341), it only remains this time to give our readers a few extracts descriptive of her more recent tour in Portugal and Madeira. There are always some lively flashes of merriment to interest in her journals, and they doubtless find many readers. As an example of the present journal, we quote from Lady Wortley's account of a visit to Cintra and Collares:

"But once more I must back to Cintra.

"A large, fine tower, together with several lateral turrets, and noble walls, adorned with machicolated battlements—I believe that is the term—appear to be already quite completed. These and an open court enclose the two chief buildings. The whole of the palace is constructed, and bears the appearance of being shut in, between the elevated peaks of the rock and huge basaltic masses. The part of the roof we climbed up to was partially surrounded by a very handsome and rich battlement.

"Fair spread the varied scenes, far, far below us. We had not yet had climbing enough, and clambered still higher to a lofty turret. Thence the view was naturally even more magnificent than from the roof. The monastic features of the interior of the edifice have been, in many respects, revived or preserved. Both the chapel and the cloister remain almost precisely as they were in the days of the monks, save that a few partly-dilapidated portions have been restored, and several slight defects that originally were to be found there have been rectified with much skill and care. There is in the chapel a fine altar-piece of transparent jasper, richly inlaid with alabaster; this is carved in relief, and it is surmounted with niches, for the reception of groups strikingly representing various passages of the New Testament, and environed by festoons of flowers, supported by pillars formed of black jasper. If a lighted candle is held behind the tabernacle, which is placed in the centre, it will reveal its transparency. An Italian artist is supposed to have executed the work by command of Dom John III.

"The apartments of the palace, according to their majesties' particular directions, have been adorned with considerable simplicity, and have no pretensions to regal splendour. The guide who conducted us through the palace was a very quiet one, and did not worry us, as occasionally happens, with long accounts of uninteresting trifles. What a pest they sometimes are! In fine old cathedrals, for instance, when you would pause and feel the dread religion of the place, you are teased by their constant interruptions; in some, I have been per-

secuted, by various interlopers and hangers-on, besides the legitimate tormentor,—the rightfull plague, the generally necessary evil,—all anxious to do the honours of particular pictures or reliques, and determined on trotting out certain poor, deserted saints, who had anything remarkable about them, or their effigies,—for the inspection of the visitant.

"A road of good breadth in the Cintra rock, partly exposed and partly walled in, after many serpentine bends, conducts to a drawbridge leading to the chief entrance of the castle, over which are suspended the royal arms of Portugal, together with those of Saxe-Coburg.

"There is a tolerable road over a rugged androwning tract that leads to the Cork Convent, 'Convento da Cortiga.' This monastery, placed in a forlorn and solitary spot, in a recess of the craggy serra, and bearing a poverty-stricken aspect, recalls to memory its poverty-stricken, pious founder and projector, Joao de Castro, of whom on his deathbed—if, indeed, he had a bed to die upon—St. Francis Xavier, his confidential friend, remarked, 'The Viceroy of India is dying in such penury and want, that he has not wherewithal to purchase a fowl.'

"This poor convent, or as some, I believe, call it, hermitage, comprises a church, a refectory, chapter-house, sacristy, and somewhere about twenty cells. The different apartments are in part built over the surface, and partly they are formed of apertures in the rock; they have cork linings throughout, as a means of counteracting the pernicious effects of the great damp; and so these cork belts to their rooms were really 'life-preservers' to the monks. It is from this circumstance the Convento da Cortiga takes its name.

"In the time of the reverend occupants, all in their abode was squalid and shabby; they gloried in having everything as uncomfortable as possible; (query, would not a true Hibernian have found this place the perfection of all comfort?)—such a thing as a bed was unknown to those reformed Franciscans. The bell at the entrance to the convent was rung by the instrumentality of a vine stem that obligingly lent itself to this service instead of a rope. Each cell was about five feet square, with very narrow, low doors, and in every respect they would have been better accommodation for the dead than the living. Conducting to the refectory there is a court, where had once flourished, we are told, fair flowers, such as hyacinths and geraniums. (These monks had some taste, it seems.) The seats of the dining-cavern, for such it was, as well as their dining-tables, were roughly hewn out of the solid rock: they could certainly ask none to their hospitable board, or to sit round their mahogany, seeing they had nothing but a block of granite.

"At no great distance from the building a hole is to be seen, partially hidden by a huge stone: in this hole a hermit, named Honorus, literally lived for the last sixteen years of his life. Here he slept, and when he stretched himself out, or rather doubled himself up to rest (like those 'folded flowers' Mrs. Hemans so prettily tells us of, I suppose, for there was not room in the little cave for him to extend himself at full length)—in the fashion of the defunct babes in the wood, a few dead leaves formed his couch—both his mattress and coverlet—and his night-garment too, probably; and he had not even a robin-redbreast for a valet, to aid him in arranging these, in his gloomy solitude!—while a mishapen rough stone was his very inconvenient pillow, which must have given him many a severe headache, one should imagine. Poor fellow! what a treasure would a well-knit anti-macassar have been to him! not to protect his cushion of granite from contact with Rowland's infallible preservative, which he could not have had the advantage of using, but to preserve his own skull from the rough friction of such an apology for a bolster. However, notwithstanding this, and a multitude of acts of penance which the annals of the Order to which this convent belonged record faithfully of him, Honorus lived to be ninety-five.

"The hermit was indeed a 'folded flower' night

and day, in his solitary life of penance! Strange delusion! to think such mortifications can please Him who has given us all things richly to enjoy, with thankfulness and moderation.

"From the humblest of flowers he might have learned a nobler lesson; they, perhaps, fulfil their part better. 'Of what use are flowers?' asked Hafz of the philosopher, who had been rather severe on poets in the course of conversation. 'They are good to smell,' replied the philosopher; 'And I to smell them,' rejoined the bard.—'They are good to smell!'—A pleasing quality, assuredly. I doubt if that much could be said of Honorus.

"The road from the Cork Convent to the west continues for a good distance to wind in and out among the bold and jutting crags. For the most part, the 'serra' is formed of granite of unequal consistency; the grains are large in some places, and small in others, and in some parts are very soft, so as to be with ease crushed by the hand, and in other portions extremely hard. The felspar it contains is generally of a greyish-tinged white, the mica black, and the quartz a dull white. Fine particles of magnetic iron mingle with them. Magnetic iron is also found in the mountain-crests, having a thickness of several inches. In general the strata follow no regular direction; and this, in addition to the confusedly-piled, and distorted, and rugged appearance of the crags and rocks, which are massed one above another in the most fantastic manner, favours the supposition that their origin was decidedly volcanic. Of this, indeed, there seems but little doubt.

"In descending from the mountain, the town of Collares, lying at some distance to the north-west, is discerned; this town gives its name to the wine so well known in Portugal, called, like it, 'Collares.' A late Portuguese writer describes it thus enthusiastically (the town, not the wine):—'At about a league to the west of the town of Cintra, and at a distance of six leagues north-west from the city of Lisbon, above a fertile and verdurous vale, known by the appellation of the Varssea, is situated the ever-smiling town of Collares, which for the flow of its fairy fountains, the melody of its delightful birds, the delicious temperature of its air—which in the most oppressive heats of summer never fails to be fresh and exquisitely cool, like the atmosphere of tender spring,—the delicacy of its rich fruits, and the purity of its pellucid water, deserves to be called a very paradise upon earth.'

"These extravagant commendations are, without doubt, overstrained and exaggerated; but still the lovely valley of Collares, covered with orchards and smiling orange-groves, presents a truly pleasing prospect, and contrasts itself exquisitely with the arid and naked mountains along whose base it so enchantingly spreads. As to the straggling town, poor and inconsiderable, it has little of interest. Some Roman inscriptions have been discovered near it, most of which are transcribed in the volume from which the description I have quoted was taken—a work written by the Viscount de Jurumenha. Around Collares the vineyards are small, and so cut up into petty portions by stone walls, that the country presents slightly the appearance of a chess-board.

"But there are other things more lovely in the neighbourhood of Collares; there grows the arbutus, gigantically high; there flourish the wild olive, the colossal stone-pine, the chestnut, the plane, and the tulip. There the cork-tree is twisting itself into ten thousand gracefully grotesque shapes, with mistletoe depending in profusion from its branches, increasing the wildness of its appearance. The oak, too, is found here in its kingly grandeur, odoriferous jessamines abound in their fairy and starry beauty, while feathery fern adds its aerial lightness to the charm of the varied vegetation, and numerous parasitic plants climb about the trees, hiding the foliage and the branches often with their exuberance. Water-melons, wild strawberries, Indian corn, rosemary, rhododendrons, geraniums, orange-trees, lemon-trees, and many other delightful productions of Nature, all are beautifully confounded together in the fine season."

One of the chief incidents in Lady Wortley's

visit to Madeira was an excursion to the famed Curral:—

"Of course we paid a visit to the Curral, the most celebrated spot in Madeira. We went with our Friends, Lord and Lady N.—. The former, as well as myself, on horseback, and the latter on a capital pony. A hammock was provided for V.—; however, she and Lady N.— took it by turns to ride and be carried in the hammock.

"The hammock-bearers are a wonderfully hardy and enduring race. They will go for an almost incredible number of hours without requiring either rest or refreshment, except, perhaps, a cup of wine at long intervals. I am speaking, however, now, of the mountaineers; the hammock-men of the town are reported to be much more easily fatigued, and quite incapable, in general, of going the long distances their mountain brethren do with facility. Lord N.— had, therefore, taken care to send to the country for those who attended us.

"For a considerable distance the road is good, and very pleasant. We passed many charming pleasure-grounds and vineyards in the environs of the city. When we got among the mountains, our path lay along the brink of a very profound ravine. In some places the path was exceedingly narrow, and in one part, owing, probably, to some accidental circumstances, most likely the late very violent rains (the most violent, they told us, they had experienced for many years), the road was entirely broken away; for a little space, at least, nothing was left but about a hand's-breadth of crumbling earth, which could not have borne the horse. Over this he lightly hopped and skipped daintily and carefully! Yet let me not wrong him. I believe, in real truth, he stepped most soberly and seriously over it, but everything seemed inclined to dance and prance before my eyes, and under, and round, and beside, and above me, even the huge rocks themselves. I always feel I should never get well over the Al-Sirat Arch! I fixed my eyes very intently upon my steed's ears in the meantime, as though critically examining their texture and colour, totally disregarding the glorious prospect spread beneath—far beneath, and high above me (particularly did I turn a 'cold shoulder' to the former); for on one side towered a rock, like a vast wall, to the clouds, and on the other side a nearly perpendicular precipice, lower and lower descended, down, down, till it might seem to an imagination rather excited by fear, to penetrate to those regions where the Spanish courtier said he would leave his salutation-giving friend, who, in rivalry of urbanity to his own courteous figurative compliment, 'I bow down to the centre of the earth,' had replied.—'And I to the infernal regions.' 'There I'll leave you,' quoted Don Somebody.

"Mine was a capital horse, one born and bred among the Spanish sierras, and imported into the island, I was told, by the governor; at any rate he had belonged to the governor, and he was reckoned one of the best horses on the island. He was called 'General'; the creature could scramble about like a monkey, almost. On this occasion he behaved beautifully, and marched along apparently with as sure a foot as a mountain mule, and without pausing to consider, too, which they sometimes do, and which dispassionate deliberation on their parts is rather an awful suspense to the rider, if the nerves are not entirely of iron. You do not feel quite sure that the animal may not have met with some reverses in life, and may be contemplating taking a lover's leap down the grim abyss that is frowning beneath. Hideous fancies have time to creep into your mind. 'General,' however, paused not; he went with the most steady air, right onward, though very slowly and discreetly, I truly believe; and glad was I to be on the other side of this horrible little chasm, which I should hope now, for the sake of all visitors to the Curral, is thoroughly repaired and filled up.

"I have often wondered, particularly in Spain, why the horses you ride along narrow mountain tracks almost invariably choose to proceed along the outer and extreme edge of the perilous path. I never dared dispute the point with them, thinking their instinct the best guide, but devoutly

wishing they would condescend to prefer what, in my humble, human judgment, appeared so much the safest part of the very limited path, that is, the farthest from the brink.

"I discovered the cause at length, after vainly asking many high authorities on the subject. The pack-mules are obliged to walk quite at the edge, on account of the burthen they carry, which sticks out on each side, while only just room enough is provided to allow for this, and the package on the inner side actually all but grazes the rock (of course, the exact capabilities of the path are nicely taken into due consideration by the muleteers, and the packing is accurately arranged accordingly). Horses, although not necessitated on this account to avoid the mountain-wall that bounds the slender road, always like to tread in the footmarks of those animals who have gone previously, and thus they pick their way along the extreme edge of the precipice, placing their feet where the others have stepped.

"We passed many of the peasantry, among whom were a large number of women, most of them bearing huge and heavy loads upon their heads, unpleasant turbans of tubs, or of piles of various articles, and towers of baskets,—and almost all of them, poor creatures, looking old. They work extremely hard, and their food is scanty and bad,—their usual diet consisting of a little coarse bread and vegetables; sometimes they have a spare allowance of fish. They were frequently accompanied by wretched, squalid-looking, hollow-eyed children: some of them also with their heads over-turbaned,—sadly encumbered with large burthens.

"One little boy we remarked was very picturesque; he had some heaps of sticks, for firewood, I suppose, in his hands, the carapuça on his head, and the rest of his attire seemed to consist entirely of a flowing cloak and an old pair of short trousers, leaving his legs and feet bare. As to a shirt,—well, perhaps, he may have had a few apologies for rags of tattered shirt somewhere beneath the cloak.

"The poor people whom we encountered along the narrow path generally ranged themselves closely against the huge rocky wall, making themselves as small as possible, to enable us to pass, and looking like so many statues or wax figures, remaining perfectly still and silent usually till we passed by. Some of them looked so weak and emaciated, poor things, that as they half tottered along beneath their ponderous loads, one felt they must be greatly exposed to the danger of making a false step, and being plunged into the yawning abyss by their side. However, they are so accustomed to these paths, that probably such an accident never or very rarely occurs. At the worst places, Lady N.— dismounted from her pony and walked. I confess I should be more frightened to do that than to ride, but I think she did not feel as much confidence in her pony as I did in my Spanish horse.

"The hammock-bearers went on capitally; they carry a stick, which they are in the habit of inserting occasionally between the pole of the hammock and their shoulders: it seems a great relief to them, as, when one part of the shoulder becomes tired or sore, the weight is thus shifted to another part. I frequently watched the hammock with admiration, as, skilfully conducted, it moved smoothly and steadily along before me, in its graceful sinuosity accommodating itself, apparently pliantly and yieldingly, to the continual unevenness of the frightful road. After passing in safety the very disagreeable bit of the *no path* I have described, I became comparatively courageous, as beside that the rest seemed but little perilous.

"I left off studying the natural appearances presented by the ears of my 'mounture,' and ventured to look down, above, and around. My admiration, however, was not wholly unaccompanied by slight horror. At this time the river displayed its gleaming waters, perhaps one thousand five hundred feet below us. Masses of rich and abounding vegetation adorned the wild, bold, majestic scenery, varying from the chestnut, conspicuous from its noble and elevated stature, to vast multitudes of brooms

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and of heaths, spreading themselves about with marvellous prodigality.

"We stopped at length at a spot where the scenery was indeed both beautiful and grand, and after dismounting from horse and hammock, walking about among the rocks, and admiring it for some time, we bethought us of having recourse to the contents of our baskets. We therefore scrambled along a rather alarmingly slippery and steep place, to search for a rock where there was ample sitting accommodation. A glorious prospect we felt there must be,—and a glorious prospect there was! We paused to look around us. Some large birds, which I took to be eagles, were flying majestically over our heads, and brightly shone the azure, unclouded sky; while below us, at a vast depth, glistened the church of a quiet village, embosomed in smiling corn-fields, and among groves of vine-covered chestnuts, a perfect image of peace and repose, while around it grew in fantastical luxuriance the banana, the orange, and the fig-tree. The church is brilliantly white, and looks almost like an alabaster toy from the heights above. What a contrast did its tranquil, calm, and gladsome appearance present to the rugged precipices, and gigantic peaks, and frowning, cloud-capped steeps, that rose up in sombre, savage grandeur around it!"

The frontispiece of the volume, drawn in Lady Emmeline's best style, is at once silly and antiquated.

Victoria; late Australia Felix, or Port Phillip District of New South Wales; being an Historical and Descriptive Account of the Colony and its Gold Mines.
By William Westgarth, late Member of the Legislative Council of Victoria. Oliver and Boyd.

THIS account of the colony of Victoria, by one who knows it well, and has held a high official position, is a truly valuable work. Of its early history an authentic sketch is presented, with statistical and descriptive notices of its present condition. Of the gold discoveries, which have wrought so great a revolution in the country, a full account is given, but not without ample details as to the other wealth and resources of the colony, and a narrative of its progress towards the flourishing state which it now presents. Truly marvellous has been the early history of this settlement. Scarcely half a century ago the coasts and harbours of Australia Felix were unknown even to geographical science. In 1802, Lieutenant Murray, in the *Lady Nelson*, first entered the harbour of Port Phillip, followed in the same year by Captain Flinders, the distinguished Australian explorer. In 1804, an attempt was made to form here a new penal settlement, but it was soon afterwards abandoned. For an interval of twenty years Port Phillip attracted no further attention. In 1835, two colonists, Mr. John Batman and Mr. John Pascoe Fawkner, formed separate settlements, and from that time the attention of the government and of the other colonists in New South Wales was directed to the country. In 1836, a resident magistrate was sent to Port Phillip, and the district began to be surveyed, and townships founded. In less than twenty years from that time there are two great cities, Melbourne and Geelong, having between them a population of upwards of a hundred thousand souls, and the province a revenue of more than a million and a half sterling. The progress in one year is thus stated by Mr. Westgarth:

"Wonderful indeed were the results of the Victoria gold-fields upon the wealth and commerce of the colony. The public revenue rose from its

amount of 380,000*l.* in 1851, to 1,577,000*l.* in 1852. In regard to trade and population, Melbourne, lately but the capital of Victoria, is already the chief city of Australia. The markets of the youngest colony now govern those of her surrounding seniors; and the estimate of her customs revenue for the present year 1853, under somewhat similar tariffs, exceeds that of all these other colonies put together. The value of the exports of the colony for the year 1852, officially stated at about seven and a half millions sterling, is however found, upon a more accurate calculation, which allows for gold exported during that year without official record, to have amounted to nearly fourteen millions sterling,—an amount considerably greater than the yearly export of the produce of any other British colony, and amounting to one-fifth of the export of Britain itself on an average of several past years."

The effects of the gold discoveries on the town of Melbourne are described in a graphic manner:

"Melbourne, from a small town, expanded suddenly into a city. Its streets swarmed with unshaven chins and negligent attire. Thousands of pockets that were once occupied only by some scant remnant of hard-earned wages, were now oppressed with masses of solid gold; and hundreds of public houses were filled with crowds venting execrations, and rioting in extravagance and folly. Robbery, outrage, and murder prevailed by day and night; and the penal settlement of the empire, close at hand, poured forth into so inviting a territory a steady felon stream, as from the open portals of Sodom and Gomorrah. True to its calling, this penal importation revelled in a region of gold and freedom, and carried the infamous romance of bush-ranging within the very boundaries of the capital. The police for the time were insufficient, inexperienced, and ineffective from continual desertion, and the want of arrangements suited to the sudden emergencies of the day."

"Such is a view of some of the dark points of the general picture of Melbourne and of the colony, stirred up to unwonted conspicuously in the first confusion of change. But a general brightness both of promise and reality still overspreads the scene. Many evils, at least in their grosser aspects and effects, may be expected to disappear in the gradual lapse of time, and habituation to the new condition of the colony."

"The increase in the expense of living soon became one of the most conspicuous features among the effects of the gold discoveries. Melbourne, in 1852, might well claim the honour, the distinction of one kind at least, of being the most expensive place of residence in the world, California itself not excepted, although proverbial in this respect. Eight years previously, it presented merits of a precisely opposite character. In these earlier days when a loaf of bread could have been bought for 4*d.*, a leg of mutton for 6*d.*, and a comfortable four-roomed cottage have been rented for 30*l.* a-year, it was difficult to point out a country where such advantages were available at cheaper rates. But, in 1852, the loaf had advanced to 2*s.*, and the mutton to 6*d.* per lb. The comfortable cottage, if to be met with at all, was contentiously disputed for by a dozen applicants; and a tantalizing landlord had reconciled his conscience to a demand of 300*l.* or 400*l.* a-year. Servants' wages had advanced from 20*l.* a-year to 50*l.*; some had the assurance to demand 100*l.*, many the intermediate gradations; and the quality of the labour was not uncommonly in an inverse ratio to the wages. The supply of a house with the indispensables of wood and water occasioned a frightful bill at the year's end, a load of the former having advanced from 5*s.* or 6*s.* to nearly as many pounds, and a cask of water out of the adjacent river from 1*s.* to 5*s.* The broad shoulders of a porter were now almost a priceless luxury for the transport of baggage; and the carter, with a summary bargain wherein the terms were generally his own, trimmed his fares between 6*s.* and 15*s.* for the various distances within the town. A cabriolet and pair

might be hired for a day by a dexterous bargain for the trifle of half-a-dozen pounds; but this was a luxury in the indulgence of which few could compete with the diggers and other labourers. To those who had to maintain any position in society, a thousand a-year, which comprises so respectable an array of means elsewhere, left nothing to spare in a very unassuming style of life in the city of Melbourne and the colony of Victoria."

The excitement caused by the discovery of the gold diggings, and the confusion of the first rush of immigration, has now somewhat passed away, but the state of the colony for some time may be understood from scenes such as Mr. Westgarth records from his own observation:

"The dropping of the anchor of every arriving vessel was the usual signal for a war between the captain and his impatient crew, who must be forthwith ashore in order to proceed to the diggings, and who were often neither very nice in intimating their wishes, nor very long, in some fashion, of carrying them out. Entire crews, obstinate and refusing to work, were transferred to prison, to be again put on board when their ship was about to leave the port."

"High words on such occasions came sometimes to blows, and ended in serious violence. One case which acquired celebrity was that of a vessel newly arrived at Geelong. The crew, on asking their discharge in order to proceed to the mines, were promised it after they had accomplished the delivery of the cargo. Not satisfied with this arrangement, they threatened to seize the boat; and the captain in his turn, arming himself with a pistol, declared he would shoot through the head the first man who advanced for that purpose. His threat being disregarded, the first person who came forward was shot accordingly, and fell dead upon the deck. The captain was then seized, lashed to the wheel, and abused by the infuriated crew; and all as it appeared in the presence of a number of passengers, who had remained, strangely one would think, quiet spectators of the scene. The crew made off, but were subsequently caught and punished; and the captain received an acquittal for the commission of the grave deed which he considered his duty had required of him."

"This state of things continued for some time, and an accumulation of one hundred three-masted vessels, many of them among the finest of British merchantmen, besides a still greater number of smaller craft, assembled at the port of Melbourne, attested at once the rising magnitude of colonial commerce, and the expense and inconvenience to which it was subjected. But amelioration gradually appeared. Sailors, sick of the diggings, came flocking to their old haunts, and longing for their usual vocations. Jack, however skilled at ploughing the waters, made a very restless and indifferent digger of the land. This became so curiously known, that judicious shipmasters, on good terms with their crews, would enter into agreements, that after discharging the cargo, the entire company, from the captain downwards, should proceed to the gold-fields, or in other instances that one-half should proceed there alternately. Although permitted to remain indefinitely amongst these supposed attractive scenes—a liberty in fact which it would have been useless to attempt to restrain—the entire party, even to a man, might be found again at duty within a fortnight. Convenient compromises were thus made, but subject in all instances to large advances of wages."

"Crews were readily engaged, although at high rates, for inter-colonial voyages occupying brief intervals; but for many months it was exceedingly difficult, indeed next to impossible, to man the vessels destined for remoter localities, such as Europe, India, and even New Zealand. Serious and incessant difficulty was therefore experienced, both at Melbourne and Geelong, in despatching the numerous vessels that were charged with the gold and other valuable exports of the colony. The emergency must be met at any consequence, and the rates of pay rose proportionately. The home

voyage had generally some attractions, particularly for the diggings' sick tars; and when none would offer himself upon any terms for China or India, parties came forward, slowly indeed and reluctantly as compared with the demand, for the voyage to Britain. For a time, under these auspicious circumstances, the rate of pay was as high as 60*l.* and upwards to each seaman; and this was demanded to be paid down in gold upon the captain before a hand would be put to the anchor-cable. The preparation for a departing ship was a scene of contest like a public auction. More than one vessel could seldom get away in the same day, or even within a wider compass of time. Captains, compelled to leave their ships and their golden cargoes, and often with a very slender guardianship, were beating up through the town day and night for seamen; and it was upon an occasion of this kind that a robbery took place of 8000 ounces of gold on board the ship *Nelson*, in Hobson's Bay, while lying at anchor ready in every thing but her crew for departure for London.

" Latterly, however, the supply of seamen has been greatly on the increase, and they are now easily obtainable in Melbourne at rates that, although still excessive, are gradually declining. These rates, during the first quarter of 1853, had settled down to about 45*l.* per man for the homeward run, 40*l.* for India and other equidistant localities, and at the rate of 8*l.* or 10*l.* per month for inter-colonial voyaging. Such local extremes naturally effect their own cure. So high and scanty a market will soon be better stocked; and already for some time past seamen have been plentifully offering themselves in Britain for the Australian voyage at one shilling per day, and even at the nominal rate of one shilling for the outward run, in order that they might secure some of this golden harvest that attends the return voyage."

So many works have recently appeared on the gold regions, and the scenes of the diggings are so familiarly known in this country, that more interest will probably be felt in Mr. Westgarth's account of some of the other occupations of the colony. From his account of Australian pastoral life here is the description of a "squatting station," in districts remote from the bustle of the towns and of the gold fields:—

"The 'Homestead,' as the head-quarters are termed, might still recal, by a lingering primitiveness of outward aspect, the early days of Port Phillip squatting. But time and prosperity had proved strong temptations to improvement; and the romantic mind of some earlier squatter, which delighted in the spectacle of the pristine simplicity of the bush, might be shocked at the display of modern conveniences and luxuries. This would particularly strike him when he had transferred his view to the inside of that homestead which he was wont in old times to term emphatically 'the huts.' Instead of chairs and tables, couches and benches, roughly put together during long leisure hours by the squatter himself or his servants, there might now be seen the most elegant English-made mahogany, soft easy chairs, and beds beyond description comfortable. The original home-made furnishings, at first condemned to the kitchen, had possibly been transferred from thence to the fire, unless preserved by the curious as relics of exploded barbarism."

"Some there were whose ambition, breaking through the ties that connected them with the original homestead, led them to select adjacent sites whereon they constructed substantial or elegant mansions. A feeling of general confidence prevailed, even some years prior to the Orders in Council, that the parties who made these substantial buildings and improvements upon lands still the property of the crown would not in the end be sufferers, even under the necessity of bringing the station or any part of it to sale. This was of course a reasonable and therefore a well grounded prospect, and took away from the feeling of risk that would have otherwise attended these operations.

"There was generally, however, a disposition to linger around the good old home. If it had passed through several purchasers, every successive occupant had put a hand to it. Every member of the family had some dear little corner; and the fair hand of a mistress, if the place were so fortunate and blessed, had decreed the immortality of 'the huts' by innumerable personal offices. Inside were the endless ornaments and appliances that fitted every crevice of the antiquated apartments. Without were to be seen the creepers trained around the rude little windows; the geraniums and fuchsias, the jessamine and verbena, that had gradually been marshalled in a pleasing array before the rustic veranda; and at a step beyond was the delightful little underground dairy, from whence, with each returning morn, came the sweetest butter and the richest cream. All this bundle of associations acquired, like the rolling snowball, irresistible power with the march of time, and opposed a formidable barrier of rural beauty to every temptation of prosperity or example that suggested a more fashionable display.

"The homestead, then, with successive additions and enlargements, came at length to have much the appearance of a small village or an irregular street. A friend in the squatting line, who had a considerable clachan of this sort, felt his importance once somewhat flattered by the mistake of several travellers, who inquired of his bullock-driver, his shepherd, or his hut-keeper (idlebs about town as they must have been mistaken for), what street they had got into, and whereabouts was the inn. These edifices are generally built of slabs, of a kind of timber that splits readily, and is abundant throughout the country. Besides the proprietor's residence, they consist of the dwellings of the servants at the homesteads, the store-room, the dairy, the stable, sheds, and so forth, each structure individually having a very unpretending appearance, although imposing from a distance in the general effect. This is particularly the case when seen from afar through the open forest, or upon the verdant grassy slopes, where, without any *arrière pensée* of an equivocal quotation, 'tis distance lends enchantment to the view."

"Upon any considerable station the homestead is not by any means the only establishment, if one may use this term. There are, besides, what are called 'out-stations,' which form the centres of sub-divisions of the run, and to which a flock of sheep is attached, under the care of a shepherd and hut-keeper. The former tends the sheep during the day, the latter attends to the cooking department—generally a very simple and monotonous vocation, and also shifts the hurdles for the camping ground of the sheep during the night. This last is an important duty. It should be done daily, and with judgment as to the ground, which should be of a dry description, with a slight incline of the surface. Moisture under foot, and particularly that from rich earth, is very unfavourable, and engenders or promotes the foot-rot—an obstinate and destructive malady among sheep. The quarters forming the out-station consist usually of a small slab hut, possessing at most two, but sometimes only one apartment. Occasionally, however, upon very extensive stations, the accommodations are superior, and comprise a kind of secondary homestead under responsible management, having attached to it several out-stations."

To colonial society in its various aspects a separate chapter is devoted, from which we give some interesting passages:—

"This inpouring of population from without is the means of a degree of rapid progression that cannot of course be accomplished otherwise; but it ever exposes society to an unsettled aspect, and to scenes of distress and misery that no amount of general prosperity will effectually prevent. The masses who arrived to-day are thrust into competition with those who came yesterday. The anxiety to find employment causes large numbers to rush into unsuitable vocations. The want for a time at first of accommodations and domestic comfort, the personal exposure to change and inclemency of

weather, the bad health or death of friends and protectors,—all these, combined with the sorrowing reminiscences of far-distant friends and home, impress simultaneously thousands of new colonists with disheartening feelings of anxiety and vexation.

"These feelings gradually pass away as a settled employment is acquired, and some share experienced of the general prosperity. But this settlement usually involves some interval of time, during which the incessant tide of immigration is ever supplying fresh victims to the exigencies of a new home. Cases of suicide have repeatedly occurred in the first intensities of disappointment, and some who despaired, not indeed of life generally, but of life in Victoria, as far as regarded a customary measure of enjoyments, appeared glad to escape elsewhere, or to return once again, although poorer than before, to their native land. With more reason and consideration, colonists, who have acquired property and retired from active business, have lately felt disposed to remove their families from the expense and discomforts attending the present social dismemberment of the colony, and for a time at least to betake themselves to other localities, where the hundreds or thousands of their annual incomes may procure them more enjoyments and more consideration than they can meet with amongst a crowd of rivals in golden Victoria.

"It is the condition and features of this apparently confused medley of human beings we are now to look into, and thus to ascertain how promptly is the mass smoothed down into an orderly English aspect. Such is the case at least with the great bulk of such society, although there is ever on its outskirts some partial contentions of a less happy aspect.

"Change of fortune is the constant feature of a thriving colony. The change is not always for the better, but it is so in the great proportion of cases—a circumstance that imparts alike vigour and exciting novelty to the social picture. Hope is ever conspicuous in the mind of the Victorian, imparting all its vivacious characteristics; and the Australian climate has often monopolized the whole credit for a joyousness of life that is due, in part at least, to the effect of other Australian circumstances."

When the time arrives for the Australian colonies being independent of the mother country, the author considers that republican institutions will certainly be established:—

"Our colonies are certainly republics whenever they separate from the parent state. To conceive them pondering over any other form of government, and deliberately instituting those inequalities of old societies that have acquired their root in remote time and in a totally different condition of society, is an idea entirely foreign to our age and people. These inequalities of long established governments bear up successfully against the levelling pressure of modern progress by virtue of circumstances which have never existed in colonies, and which cannot be created now by commands either from within or from without. We may admire the long settled and delicately adjusted forms of our parent government, the successive gradations of anciently instituted ranks, like a ladder for the ambition of genius and attainments; we may possibly prefer such institutions for our colonies; but for these colonies they are simply unattainable, nor is it reasonable to suppose that the laborious fabric of a thousand years' adjustment can be transferred like so much railway machinery to run without 'accidents' upon the new Australian as upon the old British line. The effort to engrave such inequalities tends merely to agitate and divide society; and the measure of successful ingenuity with which any step may be taken in this direction appears to me only the measure of a present social jarring and of a future political difficulty; for every such step must be eventually retaken."

The account of the newspaper press of Victoria will be read with interest. In 1838, a manuscript gazette was issued, under the aus-

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pices of Mr. Fawkner, called 'The Settlement,' with commercial advertisements and paragraphs of local intelligence. When the printing machinery arrived from England the paper was published under the name of 'The Melbourne Advertiser.' Before 1840, 'The Port Phillip Gazette' and 'Port Phillip Herald,' both semi-weekly papers, were commenced. In 1849, there were three daily papers in Melbourne, the population then being only 18,000. Of one of these, 'The Argus,' which Mr. Westgarth says, in point of dimensions, number of advertisements, and extent of circulation, may worthily be called 'The Times' of the southern hemisphere, a detailed account is given, as forming a significant and interesting leaf in colonial history:—

"The 'Argus' was founded in October 1848, and superseded 'The Melbourne Argus,' a paper established shortly before. The paper was at this time in a small and rather a declining way, having with a semi-weekly publication a circulation of 625 copies. The advertisements yielded about £3. weekly, and the weekly expenses were about £30. The field was at this time occupied by two other papers, published daily, and superior to their young rival in circulation and advertisements. In June 1849, the 'Argus' assumed a daily issue, and towards the end of 1851, amidst a contentious editorial rivalry, it was generally considered to have attained the first position. The advertisements then yielded £80. weekly, and the circulation had risen to 1500.

"The great era of the gold discoveries had now overtaken Australia, and with it there fell upon the press, in a pre-eminent degree, all those expenses and difficulties that we have elsewhere had occasion to notice in the other colonial vocations. One of the rival broadsheets now retired from the contest, under the pressure alike of these reigning troubles, and of a considerable offer for goodwill and material from the 'Argus' proprietors. The paper thus discontinued was the representative of the original 'Melbourne Advertiser,' which had successively adopted the titles of 'The Port Phillip Patriot' and 'The Daily News,' under which latter denomination it fell into the arms of the rising 'Argus,' whose popular sympathies and extreme democratic politics were now extending its importance with a rapidity that already imparted a view of its approaching destiny.

"Three thousand pounds had been paid for the 'Daily News,' which left to its purchasers about 600 new subscribers, a considerable addition of advertisements, and, above all, the advantage of a fast-printing machine, by which 1000 copies per hour could be thrown off. The importance of the last addition was soon manifest. The effects of the gold were overspreading the colony with a perfect avalanche of commercial and social necessities, all seeking their various objects through the medium of the local press. In May 1852, the weekly receipts for advertising had risen to between 250*l.*, and 300*l.*, and the circulation to 5000.

"The 'Argus' was now reputed to stand second only to the 'Times' and 'Advertiser' of the metropolis in the British dominions. It had already passed all its Australian contemporaries, including the 'Sydney and Morning Herald,' a long established daily paper, whose rare temper for a colonial publication had given it a high status, and the large circulation, as was then understood, of 3500 to 4000 copies. At this time a reduction was made in the price of the 'Argus' to the extent of one-third, on the spirited view that a still more general diffusion would occasion an enlarged advertising. This change proved eminently successful. In July of the same year, only two months afterwards, the paper doubled its size, and in the following February another sheet was still added. The weekly receipts for advertisements had now reached 800*l.*

"The circulation had increased so rapidly of late, that at this time the mechanical appliances of the colony were scarcely adequate to reach the very

extreme of demand. Ten thousand five hundred copies were thrown off daily, and the possibilities of further circulation were held in abeyance until the office was possessed of more adequate appliances. This daily circulation was superior to that of three leading metropolitan papers, according to Stamp Office data, namely, the 'Daily News,' the 'Morning Herald,' and the 'Morning Chronicle' combined.

"The 'Argus' was at this time printed by means of four different machines, which were in almost constant operation. The hands employed in all departments amounted to one hundred and forty. As some specimen of the expenses attending the colonial press, it may be remarked that while compositors are usually paid in Britain at the rate of 8*d.* or 9*d.* 'per thousand,' the payment in the 'Argus' office is 2*s.* per thousand. The price of this immense paper, with its voluminous reading matter, commercial and shipping intelligence, and upwards of 2000 advertisements, is three halfpence to each town subscriber, whose paper is delivered each morning at his residence. The cost of the mere paper, laid down in the colony, was at this time stated to be over 1*3d.* per copy, and the expenses were estimated at 1*4d.* more. On the occasion of each of the semi-weekly mail days, when editions for the country were further required, it was computed that sixteen miles of paper of the ordinary newspaper width were issued from the office; and this mass being printed as usual on both sides, it thus formed thirty-two miles of printing.

"This newspaper has all the appearance of still maintaining unimpaired that rapid progression I have indicated, to which, indeed, a more free development will be shortly given by the aid of superior mechanical appliances, and by adequate supplies of paper, which were ever falling short of the voracious demands, and which now form in the course of a year a quantity sufficient to freight entirely one of that immense fleet of shipping whose departure to her important offshoots of Australia is now a daily spectacle to the mother country."

The extracts which we have given will show the variety of the subjects contained in Mr. Westgarth's volume. In the Appendix a number of official and statistical documents are given, presenting an important record of the past history and present condition of the colony. The notices of the scenery, climate, productions, and resources of the country, with other descriptive parts of the work, are valuable in their information, and written in an agreeable and interesting style. The concluding reflections, on the position and prospects of Victoria, display ability and good sense, and the suggestions of the author deserve the attention both of private emigrants and of authorities at home and in the colony. An excellent map, engraved by Messrs. Johnston, of Edinburgh, is prefixed to the volume.

Journal of a Residence in the Danubian Principalities, in the Autumn and Winter of 1853. By Patrick O'Brien. Bentley. MANY works are at present appearing to meet the desire naturally felt for information as to the countries likely to be the seat of the impending war. The journal of Mr. O'Brien contains the report of one who has recently visited the Danubian Principalities, and his narrative and descriptions are such as will prepare for the intelligent reading of the despatches and correspondence that will probably occupy much space in the public journals for some time to come. We give specimens of the subjects on which Mr. O'Brien's book affords acceptable information. He left Constantinople in September of last year, in the Austrian steamer *Fernando I.*, for the mouth

of the Danube, his arrival at which is thus described, with an account of the actual state of the navigation of that portion of the river:—

"On the morning following our departure from Varna, we anchored at about a mile from the mouth of the Danube. There being only six feet of water above the bar, we could not approach nearer. The expanse of muddy water before us was strewed with wrecks. There was something fearfully desolate in the scene. Where the water was shallow, the dark hulls of ships were peering above the yellow tide, like half-covered corpses, and in other places, the masts alone of the sunken vessel were seen rising up from the water, like the outstretched arms of a drowning man. Stranded on the shore was the large hull of a Dutch-built vessel, rotting in the sun, and close to us were some men in boats, trying to fish up the cargo of a vessel which had gone down the day before. Within the bar was another steamer waiting to convey us up the Danube. We crossed to it in a barge, with her sails set, for the wind was fair; she was, moreover, pulled by six men, and towed by another six-oared boat, with sails also set. In about an hour, we reached the steamer waiting for us in the Danube, and having breakfasted on board, we landed for the purpose of looking at the town of Sulina.

"Sulina belongs to Russia. It is composed of a double row of one-storyed wooden houses, straggling along the river-side, with a dreary marsh behind them. Most of the houses are built upon piles in the midst of pools of putrid water, which oozes out from the neighbouring marsh. The place is reeking with fevers in the summer months, and is almost uninhabitable from the cold in winter. Pilots, fishermen, tavern-keepers, and lightermen, with a few Russian soldiers and a Greek priest or two, form the population of the town of Sulina. I counted more than two hundred vessels of different sizes at anchor in the river. Some had been there for three months, unable to get over the bar! almost every attempt to get to sea had proved fatal since the beginning of the month of June; and all efforts to cut a channel through the bar appear to have been abandoned. A Russian dredging-vessel was lying idle at the mouth of the river, and judging from the mud with which it was encrusted, and its otherwise filthy and neglected appearance, it must have been unemployed for a long time. Close to the dredging-vessel was a Russian gun-boat. The only person on her deck was a long marine, in a mud-coloured great coat, hanging over the bulwark, and dropping bits of straw into the tide. According to the treaty of Adrianople, the island of St. George, on which Sulina is built, as well as the other islands of the Danube, ought to be uninhabited. The Russians, however, built a quarantine station at the south-eastern point of Lat Island, and shortly after they raised the little town of Sulina, of which they constituted themselves the masters. At the opposite point of St. George's island, at the entrance of the channel, the Russians have also built a quarantine station. The rest of the island of St. George is a desolate swamp.

"Independent of other causes, the lowness of the water over the bar, at the mouth of the Danube, since last June, would have been sufficient to stagnate the commerce of Ibraile and Galatz. And yet it seems to me, that with a little good will on all sides, nothing would be easier than to keep a passage open through the bar, of from fourteen to sixteen feet deep. It will be seen from the hard pull which we had from the steamer to Sulina, that the current must have been very strong; it must have been running at least five knots an hour. All, therefore, that is required, would be to rake up the sand, of which the bar is composed, and the force of the current would carry it away. A dredging vessel constructed with rakes, and not buckets, would easily effect this. Driving piles on either side would, of course, keep the channel permanently open; but without going to this expense, the dredging-vessel, properly worked, could make a safe passage for ships, drawing even twelve feet of water, during the summer months.

"The St. George's Channel, which runs between the other side of the island and the Bulgarian bank of the river, might also be made navigable. In the shallowest parts there are twelve feet of water; and the water over the bar, which is at the mouth of this channel, varies at different points from seven to fourteen feet. No regular soundings have, however, yet been made, and no buoys laid down; no vessels, therefore, can attempt that passage. The Kilia Channel, which runs between the island of Lati and Bessarabia, is navigable through its whole length; but being in the power of Russia, it is never entered by ships of any other nation."

"There is no country more deeply interested in rendering the Danube navigable at its mouth than England, and it is England alone that has shown a sincere and constant desire to effect that object. In 1851, the exports from Ibraila by sea amounted to 778,157*l.*, and its imports up the Danube to 334,078*l.* The exports from Galatz by sea in the same year amounted to 496,368*l.*, and the imports up the Danube to 374,233*l.*, making in all a sum for imports and exports of 1,982,536*l.* British subjects and British ships have the principal share in this trade; it is, therefore, the duty of Her Majesty's Government to exert its influence to remove, as far as possible, all obstructions to the free navigation of the entrance of the Danube."

The appearance of Russian troops, as they were first seen by the author, is thus described:—

"I left Ibraila to return to Galatz by land. These carriages are the best public conveyances in the town, and as the road was everywhere covered with a thick carpet of dust, I did not feel the absence of springs so much. Outside the town, we passed a Russian camp of two thousand men. After about an hour and a-half quick driving, we reached the banks of the Sereth, the boundary between Wallachia and Moldavia. Here I had to show the pass which was given me by the police of Ibraila. We crossed the river over a bridge of pontoons, made about two months before by the Russians; and on reaching the opposite side I had again to show my pass to the Moldavian police-officer. The river is about two hundred feet wide, and is of the same muddy tint as the Danube. About a quarter of an hour before reaching the river, we had passed through a village, in which were stationed five hundred Russian soldiers. They were turning out for parade as we went through. They appeared, in general, well made, soldierly-looking fellows, especially the non-commissioned officers, who were mostly men between thirty and forty years of age, with a stern veteran look. The uniform was a green coatee, with white painted cross-belts and white trousers. They wore helmets, something like those of the London fire-brigade. The point, which rises to about four inches from the top of the helmet, is made of brass, and on the front is the eagle of Russia, of the same metal. The muskets had percussion locks, and the barrels were polished and had brass rings round them, and seemed altogether to be modelled on the common French firelock. They carried their greatcoats in a round leather case on the top of their knapsacks, which were made of cow-hide. I observed that they did not wear highlows like our soldiers, but Wellington boots. The uniform worn by these men I have since learned to be that of nearly all the Russian infantry of the line. When the Russian soldier returns to his quarters, he instantly puts aside his helmet, coatee, cross-belts, trousers, and turns out in his drawers, which reach below the knee, till they are met by the Wellington boot, and he wears a flat foraging cap of dark cloth, and a fawn-coloured great coat, which is gathered in at the waist and comes down to his ankles. It is in this dress that he performs all fatigue duty. I am sorry to say that the bright clean appearance of the Russian soldier when on parade is confined to the surface, for his shirt, drawers, and other under-garments are generally in an alarming state of dirt."

A short time after, another detachment of the Russian army was encountered, the im-

pression produced by which was more favourable. When there exists discipline so perfect, and enthusiasm so strong, the power of such an enemy must not be underrated:—

"They had that staid, soldierly look which is the effect of severe discipline. This I observed to be the characteristic of nearly all the Russian soldiers that I have seen in the Principalities. The exceptions are the young recruits, who of course are not yet properly formed. I have never observed any appearance of light-heartedness among the Russian soldiers even when off duty. It is true that at times, in marching, whole battalions sing in chorus either the national anthem, which is a fine, solemn air, or some wild melody, generally of a warlike character, interspersed with sharp cries and an occasional shrill whistle. These latter songs are particularly animated and spirit-stirring, and the quick rattle of the drum, which is the sole instrumental accompaniment, increases their exciting character. To the listener there is something sublime in thus hearing thousands of manly voices blended together in chorus, uttering sentiments of devotion to God and the Emperor, or of fierce defiance to the enemies of the Czar. But even in these exhibitions the sternness of military rule is seen. Upon the faces of the men thus engaged no trace of emotion is visible; their tread is measured; their forms are erect; they are obeying a command, and not an impulse. The emotions of the heart seem to have been drilled into order, and expressions of love or anger, devotion or revenge, are only awakened by the voice of their commander."

Near Bucharest, Mr. O'Brien saw a review of eighteen thousand Russian troops by Prince Gortschakoff:—

"The vast plains of Wallachia are admirably adapted for displays of this kind, or for the more serious operations of actual war. There was not a wall or hedge, and scarcely a tree, to impede the movement of the troops. There were about eighteen thousand men present. They at first formed in line, with the artillery on the extreme left, and next to them the cavalry, composed of lancers and hussars, and then came the infantry. The infantry, regiment by regiment, then broke into open columns of companies, and marched past the General. Each company, as it passed before the Prince, cheered, and the light troops ran by in double time for about two hundred yards, cheering all the way. The cavalry marched by in squadrons, each squadron cheering when they came in front of the Commander-in-chief; and a body of Hulans, who waited some little time behind, went past at a charge, shouting wildly. The light artillery also went past at full gallop. Each regiment of infantry then formed in close column, with the cavalry and artillery on their rear. They were in all a magnificent body of troops, and went through the different movements with wonderful precision. The effect of the great mass of infantry formed in close column, with the sun sparkling on their helmets, was very fine. Seen at a distance, it looked like a lake of flame. When the inspection was over, the troops marched off the ground to their respective quarters, each body as it passed singing the national anthem, or some war-song. Prince Gortschakoff is more than sixty years of age, but he is firm and erect, and has all the appearance of a veteran soldier. None of the generals under his orders seem less than fifty years old, and all have the same stern, war-worn look."

Of the present condition of the Principalities a melancholy report is given, and the author offers suggestions for the future disposal of these countries, if the Allies succeed in expelling the Russians:—

"Humanity demands that something should be done by the great powers of Europe for the amelioration of these Principalities. Under the present system they are exposed to the invasion of a Russian army, on the slightest pretext, and they are afterwards forced to pay the expenses of the occupation, and to support, to a great extent, those foreign troops whilst they remain in the country.

In the present quarrel between Russia and the Porte, the Moldo-Wallachians, without a shadow of justice, are made the first victims. Their commerce is ruined, the industry of the country is suspended; the peasant is dragged from the cultivation of his fields to transport the baggage of a foreign army, his house is occupied and his scanty store of food eaten by the soldiers of another nation. The farmers cannot pay their landlords, for the produce of their land is rotting in the open air at the ports of the Danube, for want of the means of transport. The forage and other stock brought to the markets of Bucharest and the other towns of the Principalities, are sold at a price fixed by the Russian Commissariat; a price which was established in the abundant season of last June, and which is less than half what the same produce ought to bring at the present time. It is evident that if this state of things be permitted to last, these Principalities, notwithstanding the immense resources with which they are endowed by nature, must fall to ruin.

"Hospodars, with a divan chosen in the corrupt way I have shown, by Russia and Turkey, are evidently not a proper form of government for these countries. Let an end be put to the intrigues by which these princes are elected and afterwards deposed. Let these two Principalities, which are capable of supporting twenty millions of souls, be raised into an independent power. Let a ruler be chosen for them from amongst the royal families of Germany, or even amongst the members of the Imperial houses of Austria or Russia. Let a regular dynasty be formed, and an end will be put to those wretched plots which thwart the authority of the Prince and lead to his downfall; plots in which the Boyards, jealous of the head of the State, and anxious to occupy his place, sacrifice the public weal in the hope of gratifying their own ambition. The example of a well-organized Court, with a virtuous and able prince at its head, would do more to eradicate the remnants of Oriental corruption which still exist in these countries, and to substitute in their place sentiments of honour, of patriotism, and of truth, than all the censures of the press, or the remonstrances of foreign powers. Let the integrity of the new nation be guaranteed as was that of Greece, and the Pruth would be no longer too feeble a barrier against the inroads of Russia, nor a simple line of boundary, a useless obstacle to the encroachments of Austria. Peace would at length, after long centuries of turmoil and intrigue, visit these unhappy countries. Moldo-Wallachia might then become, in reality, the granary of Europe, and, under an independent government, with rational institutions, would share in all those advantages of progressive civilization which have been hitherto denied to it by its deplorable position. You cannot expect the virtues of patriotism from men who have in reality no country, that is to say, where the aggregate of the people of whom they form a part is not bound together by equitable social laws; nor can you expect that the higher moral and intellectual qualities of a nation will develop themselves under a government which is too corrupt to appreciate such qualities or to give them encouragement."

Mr. O'Brien gives some interesting notices of the social and political state of the Greeks under the Turkish rule. Of the government of the Bavarian king, Otho, we think he is inclined to speak far too favourably; but there is no question as to the great advances made in late years by the Greeks, and we only wish that they could secure some form of wider nationality. But the attempt to gain this by insurrection at the present crisis could only result, if successful, in their subjection to Russian influence and power. If the Western European Powers can bring the existing troubles in the East to a satisfactory settlement, their noblest work would be the improvement of the condition of the Greeks, if not by total emancipation from Turkish power, at least by securing more complete

equality as subjects of the Porte. The time for re-establishing a Greek Empire at Constantinople is not yet come, though this will probably be the alternative, when it is found to be impossible to maintain "the integrity of the Ottoman Empire." Mr. O'Brien then commences his account of Greece and the Greeks, as he has observed them:—

"It has been the fashion for some years past to decry the kingdom of Greece, its government, and its laws. I have been well acquainted with that country since 1843, for I arrived there in that year on board the same British frigate which brought Mavrocordato, who after the revolution was appointed prime-minister. I could never discover any but a very flimsy basis for all this abuse. The evils which do exist in the country spring entirely from its poverty and its weakness, and the only remedy for them is to find some measure which would render the country stronger and more prosperous. In these days the power and wealth of a nation depend chiefly on its commerce. The commerce of Greece is very limited, and for this reason—that its soil is, for the greater part, unproductive, and its population small, and, generally speaking, poor. Patras and Syra are the only towns of any commercial importance. Patras has an export trade in currants; and Syra owes its comparative prosperity to its position, which is admirably adapted for transit trade. It cannot be said that the Greeks are either idle or ignorant; they make the most of the few local advantages which they possess. The trade of Patras and Syra have been developed to their utmost limits since the independence of the country has been established. Those Greeks who could not find an opening in their own country have carried their talents and their spirit of enterprise elsewhere. Within the last few years they, by their unrewarded activity, have absorbed the whole trade of the Levant; and the millions which are yearly exported from Great Britain to the Mediterranean pass through their hands. One of the richest banking-houses in the world at the present day is that of Baron Sina at Vienna, who is a most patriotic Greek, and Consul-General and Agent for King Otho in Austria. The house of Mr. Ralli, Consul-General for Greece in London, holds a very high place amongst the commercial establishments of Great Britain. Mr. Ralli has large commercial houses in Constantinople, St. Petersburg, Odessa, and Calcutta, and at different ports of the Mediterranean. There are no people who have so strong a spirit of national union amongst them as the Greeks. Their general prosperity and success in foreign countries is almost entirely owing to this sentiment. They mutually assist each other, and this is the reason why in most of the commercial crises the Greek houses have remained intact, whilst many of greater pretensions, both British and foreign, became bankrupt. When a Greek is prosperous in the world he extends his assistance to all his relations, and never denies a claim made upon him in the name of his country."

Education seems to be on the increase, of which the following evidences will be read with interest:—

"It cannot be said the Greeks are ignorant, for the university of Athens is at present the first seat of ancient Greek learning in Europe. Modern Greek, which only a few years ago was studied solely by some Fanariot families, is now spoken with purity by millions of the Greek race. There is not a town or village throughout Greece that has not a college or a school paid by the nation. I remember visiting, not long ago, a little village about twelve miles from Nauplia, on the sea-shore. The inhabitants were very poor—some of the poorest in all Greece—but they had a school. The wretched people toiled at the meagre soil from morning till night to keep the wolf from the door; and though their children might have aided them in their labour, yet they thought it their first duty to send their little ones to school. I visited this school, where I found some thirty children as-

sembled. They were supplied with slates and books by the *commune*, but writing-paper was an expensive luxury which was only given to the more advanced pupils. The beginners learned to write upon the sand. There was a long board, with a ledge round it, strewed with a thin layer of fine sea-sand, and before this eight or ten little creatures were standing, and with their chubby fingers were drawing upon the sand their alphas and omegas under the direction of a monitor. They all pulled off their red caps when I entered, and laying their little hands on their breasts, they made me a grave bow. The head boy, who had nothing on but a loose shirt and very wide pair of breeches, recited for me, with a great deal of fire, a warlike passage out of Homer, which was applauded by all the little fellows as soon as he had finished.

"Arithmetic, geography, and general history are taught in all these small schools. Besides the university at Athens, there are two royal colleges; one at Patras, the other at the Piraeus; and there are large public schools in all the principal towns. I was present once at the midsummer examination which took place at the public school of Tripolitza, where the pupils answered exceedingly well in mathematics, literature, and history. There is an extensive military college at the Piraeus, and judging from what I saw at the public examination there, it is conducted as well as any establishment of the kind in Europe."

Some account is given of the position of the Russian and Turkish armies since the commencement of hostilities; but on this subject Colonel Chesney and other military writers have supplied more valuable information. It appears that festivities and amusements are not neglected amidst the scenes of this war, any more than in those of former times:—

"Shortly after the battle of Oltanitz, the winter festivities began at Bucharest, and dinner-parties, balls, and concerts, succeeded each other with rapidity, as though the hospitals were not filled with the wounded and the sick, and there were not hundreds of newly-dug graves on the banks of the Ardzhish. Oltanitz was forgotten; a new topic had taken possession of the town—an English *prima donna* was announced for the Italian opera of Bucharest. We naturally felt anxious for the success of our countrywoman, appearing at such a moment before an audience almost entirely Russian. We feared that she might be badly received because of her country, and therefore it was with considerable anxiety that we took our places in the Consul-General's box to witness her appearance in *Beatrice di Tenda*.

"Singing, as I have already mentioned, is taught in every regiment in the Russian army; and amongst Russian officers I have met some very good musicians. The majority of our *prima donna's* audience might therefore be supposed to possess a certain amount of critical talent. The Englishwoman's success was decided after the first scene. The Russian officers, who crowded the pit, applauded uproariously, and brought our countrywoman three times curtseying to the foot-lights. She had a good voice, of considerable compass; but, above all, she showed herself a thorough musician, who had been properly educated for her profession. She sang the composer's music faithfully and correctly, a thing which no one had ever heard before at the Opera of Bucharest."

Mr. O'Brien closes his volume with some comments on the alleged dilatoriness and vacillation of England in regard to the Eastern question. He thinks that the Government have not been to blame, and that they deserve warmest commendation for their anxiety to do everything, consistent with national honour, to avert the calamities of a general war.

NOTICES.

A Dozen Ballads for the Times about White Slavery.
By the author of 'Proverbial Philosophy.' Bosworth.

In these ballads Mr. Martin Tupper presents pictures of the condition of some of the hard-wrought classes of the English people, such as the field-servants, the coalpit-workers, the needlewomen, the servants of all work, factory operatives, and others, to group all of whom under the designation of white slaves is an abuse of language, and a perversion of philanthropy. We give part of one of the ballads on—

OUR NATIONAL DEFENDERS.

"Poor Jack is right ready to watch and to work,
And any one's servant to be,
All dangers to dare, and no duty to shirk,—
But cannot put up with that terrible Turk
A quarter-deck tyrant at sea!

"Give, give him his comforts; for hardships enough
Must ever be mates of poor Jack;
But his heart is as soft as his bosom is rough,
And he feels like a woman the curse or the cuff
And the mark of the cat on his back!"

"And—General Martinet, one little verse
To you and your majors is due:
Be kind to your men; for no blunder is worse
Than still to be flinging the cuff or the curse
At Englishmen honest as you!"

"Don't tease them with pipeclay; nor drill them too hard;
Nor shave their moustaches away,—
Why shouldn't their beards be 'outparding the pard'?—
Nor stiffen their stocks on parade, nor on guard;
Nor scold them by night and by day."

"Let Jack and his brother, who fight for us, find
They serve under true-hearted men,
As officers strict, but as gentlemed kind,
And so to each service good treatment shall bind
Our champions most heartily then!"

One of the introductory sonnets is pithily written, and in a strain of cheerful hope:—

"Yes, be of better comfort, English heart!
The day has dawn'd when our whole scheme of Wrong
After its toils and griefs and suffering long
Must end,—and all that train of its depart:
Not now a weed, O labouring man, thou art;
Thews are not cheap and common, worthless stock,
But scarce rise in value; social ill
Works its own cure, and wealth no more shall mock
The rights of labour, nor the freeman's will:
Strikes—let them fail! but Industry and Skill
Shall wrestle down the despots, till they crave
Help of all helpers; ay, and Time's old clock
Will soon strike Freedom for our British slave."
The long-hoped hour his handcu's to unlock."

Although there is less poetry in these ballads than in other of Mr. Tupper's compositions, there are earnestness and vigour in whatever he writes, and his verses may awaken in some readers a desire to lessen the hardships of those in less favoured spheres of life.

Jacqueline Pascal; or, Convent Life at Port Royal.
Compiled from the French of Victor Cousin, Fangère, Vinet, and other Sources, by H. N. With an Introduction by W. R. Williams, D.D. Nisbet and Co.

The names of Pascal, of Port Royal, and the Jansenists, recall associations as dear to English and Protestant as to French and Catholic readers. Great interest has always been felt in the subject, which in this work is presented in a very attractive form. In giving the biography of Jacqueline Pascal, many important topics are incidentally handled. The researches of Cousin, Fangère, Vinet, Reuchlin, and St. Beuve, have recently supplied ample materials for a complete history of Port Royal. Of Sister Jacqueline, and her convent life, an interesting sketch is here given. Very beautiful is the story of her pious life; and she seems to have possessed much of the intellect and genius of her illustrious brother. When young, she attracted the notice of Cardinal Richelieu; and her early poems, specimens of which are given in the present work, display much literary taste and fine imagination. But it was part of the religious system of the sisterhood to suppress all intellectual and literary accomplishments, as well as to mortify more objectionable hindrances to spiritual perfection. The writer of the memoir does not fail to point out the evils of this superstitious and mistaken self-sacrifice. It is well that this is done; as some recent writers, in their admiration of what was good in the Jansenists, have taken slight

notice of their grave errors, and have more assimilated them to Protestants than they really were. The true principles of the religious parties of those times are clearly stated in this volume, as well as a faithful picture of convent life at Port Royal, and a striking biography of Jacqueline Pascal.

A History, Military and Municipal, of the Town of Marlborough and the Hundred of Selkley.

By James Waylen. J. Russell Smith.

The Rambler in Worcestershire. By John Noake. Longman and Co.

THESE two volumes are interesting contributions to English topography and history. Mr. Waylen's 'History of Marlborough' is a very elaborate and complete work, and contains much matter of general interest, as well as ample details which will be chiefly prized by residents in Marlborough and that part of Wiltshire. The Worcestershire rambles of Mr. Noake are of a more discursive kind—descriptions of particular localities, especially of all the principal churches and parishes of the city and county being given, with occasional notices of the history and antiquities of Worcestershire. Mr. Waylen's 'History of Marlborough' will be read with interest, and it will form a valuable book in the libraries of Wiltshire. Mr. Noake's 'Rambles' is a work for more frequent reference, especially for the ecclesiastical statistics which it contains.

SUMMARY.

THE fifth volume of the *Proceedings of the Royal Irish Academy* (Dublin: Gill), contains valuable papers on subjects of science and literature. Among the miscellaneous notices of the Academy's transactions, is an account of the election of Mr. Macaulay and of Mr. Prescott as honorary members in the section of Polite Literature, and of MM. Elie de Beaumont, M. V. Regnault, and Augustin Louis Concy in the section of Science.

A paper on *The Tides and Currents of the Polar Sea*, by John Murray, civil engineer (Effingham Wilson), maintains the probability of open sea in high latitudes, and of a north-east passage to the Pacific, with reasons for persevering in the search for Sir John Franklin and his companions. Mr. Murray's extracts from the works of various voyagers form the chief claim of his pamphlet to the attention of those who still take interest in this subject. A chart accompanies the memoir.

Of the new edition of *Thiers' History of the French Revolution*, the third volume is published (Bentley), to be completed in five volumes. The notes and illustrations, added from various sources by the translator, Mr. Frederick Shoberl, render the work more valuable to English readers, as M. Thiers is a writer whose statements often require to be compared with other authorities. The work is illustrated with good plates and portraits.

Under the title of *Tractarianism no Novelty* (Masters), a zealous layman, Mr. George Frederick Mandley, reprints Dean Stanley's 'Faith and Practice of an English Churchman,' first printed in 1868. The work has been frequently reprinted, and twice within the last few years; but Mr. Mandley's edition has the peculiarity of containing a great many polemical comments suited to the taste of those who think with the writer that "schism is as much a sin as murder," and that "Tractarianism is a name given by the prejudiced and misinformed." Another zealous polemic, Mr. James Biden, publishes a large volume of original matter, entitled *Truths Maintained* (Aylott and Co.), in which various subjects of controversy are handled in a series of papers. Mr. Biden hopes to see the Church settled on new foundations, and has very little respect for ecclesiastical traditions and antiquarian usages. The book maintains some important truths, but also presents some impracticable proposals.

The first number of a new periodical, *The Journal of Classical and Sacred Philology* (Cambridge: Deighton, Macmillan. Oxford: J. H. Parker), contains several papers of interest, and on subjects so various as to render the work attractive to a large circle of academic readers. The notices of

current philological literature at home and abroad, and the abstracts of the contents of foreign journals of criticism, show that this periodical is in able editorial hands.

Of *The Thoughts and Opinions of a Statesman, William Von Humboldt* (Pickering), a second edition is issued, a little volume of most valuable reading, containing the thoughts of a learned and pious man on many important subjects, selected from his correspondence with a lady. Few even of his friends knew William Von Humboldt, the representative of Prussia at the Congress of Vienna, as more than a skilful diplomatist and an accomplished scholar; but these letters reveal a mind deeply imbued with Christian truth, and influenced by religious feeling. As the editor justly observes, "it is no refuse who here preaches from his closet the lessons of religion and virtue; it is the man of the world, the statesman, the diplomatist, whom we find teaching and acting upon the precepts of Christianity." Several tales for young people, by Jacob Abbott, are presented to English readers (Ward and Co.): *Agnes: a Franconian Story*; also, *Caroline: a Franconian Story*; Franconia being a village among the mountains of the Northern American States. A third tale is *Stygescent*: the object of the whole series being to illustrate and to foster the development of moral sentiments and benevolent feelings in the young. A tale, *Dale End; or, Six Weeks at the Vicarage*, by the author of 'The Unseen Hand' (G. Herbert), represents the way of life of an active evangelical clergyman, with hints that may be useful for household visiting, and other departments of parochial duty. The author also states his views on some controversial questions, such as the Christian policy of the national system of education in Ireland, which he considers altogether under popish influence. It is not so in Ulster; and even in the most popish districts, if the system is not doing all that Protestants could desire, it is diffusing an intelligence and knowledge that must benefit the people, and prepare them for receiving truth. A little treatise, *The Bible; its Oneness of Mind and Oneness of Design* (Blackader and Co.), by the Rev. David Laing, F.R.S., presents a concise and clear summary of the evidences derived from the unity of the sacred records, notwithstanding the variety of authorship and of the times and circumstances of their being written. A pleasing book for children, by Mrs. Bessett, *The Lost Child, a Tale of London Streets; and other Stories*, in words of two syllables (C. Westerton). The author has the tact of writing in a strain of thought and style of language adapted for juvenile readers.

In the series of books, 'Reading for Travellers' (Chapman and Hall), *Carlyle's Essay on Burns* is given, which originally appeared in the 'Edinburgh Review' in 1828, as a review of Lockhart's 'Life of Burns.' In Bentley's 'Railway Library' (Bentley), *Lord and Lady Harcourt; or, Country Hospitalities*, by Miss Catherine Sinclair, author of 'Beatrice,' 'Modern Accomplishments,' and a lengthening list of novels and tales.

Among recent pamphlets may be mentioned *Considerations on the Government Bill for abolishing the Removal of the Poor*, by Robert Pashley, Esq. (Longman and Co.), whose knowledge of the subject of pauperism entitles his views to attention. Mr. Pashley approves of the change in the law of settlement, but he objects properly to the proposed levying of an equal rate on all the parishes in each union, some of which would thus pay more than a due share. He suggests an equitable method of re-distributing the rates. *The City of London Corporation Inquiry*, by Alexander Fulling, Esq., barrister-at-law (Hatchards), a paper reprinted from the 'Law Review' of the present quarter, contains a summary of the proceedings of the Commission, and various suggestions. *Future Punishments*, by Quarens (Saunders and Otley), a discussion of the subject, to which the case of Professor Maurice has recently directed more than usual public notice. *The South-Eastern Railway Crisis* (W. and F. G. Cash), an indignant statement of the alleged mismanagement of the Company, by a malcontent shareholder. *Shall Turkey live or die?* by Thomas

Carlyle, Esq., not the Thomas Carlyle (Bosworth) a pamphlet in which the question of the impending war is discussed with little power and no novelty. *Two Sermons on the Prospect of a General War*, by the Rev. J. S. Boone (J. W. Parker and Son). Of bulkier size, and of greater interest, to legal readers at least, is a statement of the *Judgment of the Court of Queen's Bench in the Case of Mr. W. H. Barber* (Crockford), with Mr. Barber's comments, and relative documents, presenting a copious narrative of the case, and much legal information bearing on the points at issue. As far as we can judge Mr. Barber seems to have been hardly dealt with.

LIST OF NEW BOOKS.

- Adams's (C.) Boys at Home, 2nd edit., cloth, 3s. 6d.; gilt, 4s. Archbold's (J. F.) New Lunacy Statutes, 12mo, cloth, 5s. Barham's (G.) Pastoral and other Poems, cap. 8vo, 2s. 6d. Beasley's Druggist, 3rd edition, 18mo, cloth, 8s. Boothby's (B.) Law of Indictable Offences, 2nd edition, 15s. Bryant's Poetical Works, 16mo, cloth, 2s. 6d.; gilt, 3s. Cecil's (Rev. R.) Life and Remains, cap. 8vo, cloth, 2s. Channing's (Dr.) Literary Works, post 8vo, cloth, 5s. Theological Works, post 8vo, cloth, 5s. Cherry and Violet, 2nd edition, post 8vo, cloth, 7s. Cummings's (Rev. Dr. J.) The Comforter, cap. 8vo, 2s. The Finger of God, 4th ed., 2s. 6d. Davy's (Dr. J.) West Indies, Svo, cloth, 7s. Dember's Memoirs of the Court of Prussia, crown 8vo, 6s. 6d. Diary, Guide to the Management of the Garden, 12mo, 2s. 6d. Gasparin's Schools of Doubt and the School of Faith, 5s. Goodwin's Lectures on the Church Catechism, 12mo, 4s. Hann and Genet's Steam Engine, Svo, cloth, 9s. Hartland's Genealogical and Chronological Chart, £15. 15s. Hewlett's (Dr.) Facts without Fiction, 12mo, cloth, 4s. 6d. Hodge's Commentary on the Epistles to the Romans, 2s. 6d. Hunt (H.) on Heartburn and Indigestion, 8vo, cloth, 5s. Huntley's (Rev. C.) Phethon, 2nd edition, post 8vo, 2s. Laing's The Bible, its Oneness of Mind and Design, 1s. 6d. Maurie's Tables of Simple Interest, 4th edition, 8vo, cloth, 7s. Leakey's (C. W.) Lyra Australis, 12mo, cloth, 8s. Long's Sir Roland Ashton, 2nd thousand, 2 vols. p. 8vo, 10s. 12mo, boards, 2s. Lyra Graeca, edited by Donaldson, 12mo, cloth, 5s. McLachlan's (J. R.) Wages and Labour, cap. 8vo, bds., 1s. Miller's (H.) My School and Schoolmasters, post 8vo, 7s. 6d. Montgomery's Popery as it Exists in Great Britain, 10s. 6d. Morell's (J. R.) Russia Self-Condemned, Svo, cloth, 9s. Pfeiffer's (C. W.) Ottoman Empire, translated by W. K. Kelly, 2s. Shuttleworth's Apostolical Epistles, 5th edition, 8vo, 9s. Story of an Apple, by Lady Campbell, 2nd edition, 12mo, 2s. Thomson's (R. D.) Cycle of Chemistry, illustrated, 8vo, 12s. 6d. Vanderkiste's Dens of London, new edit., 2s. 6d.; sd., 1s. 6d. Weiss's History of Protestant Refugees, 8vo, cloth, 1s. 4s.

THE ABBÉ DE LAMENNAIS.

FRANCE has just lost one of the most distinguished of her sons in the person of the well-known Abbé de Lamennais. He died at Paris on Monday last. He was born at St. Malo in 1782; his father was a wealthy ship-owner, but became reduced in fortune by the revolution and the wars with England. Feeling a strong repugnance to commercial pursuits, he gave himself up to study; and, though not aided by good masters, plunged deeply into all the branches of human knowledge. Theology, however, was his favourite subject, and he investigated it and everything bearing on it, with an ardour not common even amongst those who embrace the ecclesiastical profession. Obliged to earn his bread, he became professor of mathematics in the College of St. Malo. Shortly after he produced his first work, 'Réflexions sur l'Etat de l'Eglise en France.' In it he drew but a sad picture of French society and the French clergy; and he indulged in some sharp observations on the tyranny of the Imperial régime. The work displeased Bonaparte I., then absolute master of France, and it was seized by his police. A little later he wrote a work on the 'Institution des Evêques,' which was much admired; and also brought out a translation of 'Louis de Blois.' At the age of thirty-two he went to Paris, and published a vehement attack on Napoleon (who had just been exiled to Elba) and on the University, and the system of national education which he had established. When Napoleon reascended the throne, he, fearing his vengeance, deemed it prudent to come to England. He lived three months

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Kensington, during which time he learned our language, and then accepted a situation as tutor in a family. In a few months, however, he returned to France, and entered the seminary of Saint Sulpice with the intention of preparing himself for taking orders. But his stay in that establishment was not long, and he returned to Rennes, the capital of his native Brittany. There, in 1816, he was formally ordained a priest. Shortly after he brought out the 'Essai sur l'Indifférence en Matière de Religion.' This work was received with much interest, and placed him at once in the rank of the foremost writers and thinkers of the day. It has since been translated into almost every language, and is still generally read, and as generally admired. It was followed after an interval of two years by a second volume under the same title, which is quite as remarkable for powerful reasoning and nervous eloquence, and even more so for the vast reading it displays. He now became an active contributor to newspapers and periodicals. In 1825, after a visit to Rome, he brought out a translation of the 'Imitation of Jesus Christ,' and his 'La Religion considérée dans ses Rapports avec l'Ordre Civil et Politique.' This latter work is considered one of the most magnificent apologies for the Roman Catholic Church ever published in any language. It was followed by his treatise on the 'Libertés de l'Eglise Gallicane,' which is also esteemed by Romish churchmen. As this latter work attacked some pretensions put forward by the government, he was prosecuted and fined a small sum. On this occasion he made to his judges a threat which has become memorable in France, "You shall learn what it is to have to do with a priest!" In 1827 and 1828 he produced 'Réflexions sur l'Imitation,' 'La Journée du Chrétien,' and 'Le Guide du Premier Age,' which are full of the most fervent and touching piety. His next publication of note was 'Des Progrès de la Révolution et de la Guerre contre l'Eglise,' a work which was censured by the Archbishop of Paris, as being too liberal, though it exalted the authority of the Church. The Revolution of 1830 broke out shortly after, and the Abbé de Lamennais, in conjunction with the Count de Montalembert, started a newspaper called the 'Avenir,' in which he laboured to reconcile the Church of Rome and the cause of liberty—or rather to make that church the champion and representative of the political, civil, and moral progress which, in different degrees, is acting on every state in Europe. In this journal, whilst preaching the necessity of "one fold and one shepherd"—the fold being Rome and the shepherd the Pope—he advocated a separation of Church and State, the abstention of the clergy from political affairs, and other great reforms. His doctrines were very unpalatable to his ecclesiastical superiors at Rome, and he was blamed for entertaining them by the Pope. He made, as became his position as a Roman-catholic priest, a humble submission to his Holiness, and discontinued the publication of his newspaper. Circumstances, however, again brought him and his doctrines prominently before the public, and, on account of his wide-spread reputation as a writer, the Court of Rome attached the greatest possible importance to obtaining from him a public repudiation of all opinions he had professed, or was believed to entertain, of a character incompatible with the existing temporal and religious institutions of Popery, or disagreeable to the Pope and the cardinals. To obtain this renunciation it is said that splendid offers were made to him, and that even a cardinal's hat was formally promised; but, though he laboured hard to reconcile the cry of his conscience with the duty of obedience as a priest, and though he actually did make some concessions to Rome, he found that he could not go the lengths that were expected. Accordingly a rupture between him and Rome took place. A little later he brought out a small work called the 'Paroles d'un Troyant.' It is a sort of cry of anguish over the temporal misery and intellectual darkness of the lower classes in all countries, and a sort of Apocalyptic denunciation of 'kings and tyrants,' who are represented as oppressing God's people. It is written in Biblical

language, and, it is not too much to say, possesses, in a literary point of view, some of the gentleness, beauty, and grandeur which make the Scriptures one of the most remarkable of books. The "Paroles" produced an excitement not only in France, but in all Europe; they were seized on by the extreme democratic party as the best exposition and sanction of their peculiar doctrines ever put forth—and no wonder, for they maintained nothing less than that all that the Saviour Christ taught was democratic,—and they caused terror to all the ruling powers. At Rome they created a tempest of wrath, and Pope Gregory XVI. thundered against them as "erroneous, anarchical, scandalous, impious, offensive to God, blasphemous," &c. But the die was now cast: Lamennais was henceforth one of the bitterest and most relentless adversaries of the Papacy, one of the most devoted and enthusiastic partisans of "the people," as the democrats not very modestly call themselves. All his later publications, such as "Le Livre du Peuple," "De l'Esclavage Moderne," his contributions to reviews and newspapers, &c., were written in this spirit; and, whether it be for good or for evil, certainly no man has done more to damage the Papacy and to exalt democracy. The sincerity of the change in his convictions has, as always happens in such cases as his, been strongly doubted; but if he were not sincere, it is hard to say what his object could be, for the conversion, or apostasy, or whatever it may be called, was the ruin of his worldly prospects: it caused him to be abandoned by his family and friends, it sent him to gaol, and exposed him to obloquy. On the Revolution of 1848 he was elected a member of the National Assembly, and he of course voted with the extreme republican party. But it is worthy of note that, notwithstanding his ultra opinions, he was a determined adversary of the mischievous fanatics called Socialists. In the Assembly he never spoke, and took no active part in political proceedings, but he felt a keen and painful interest in all that occurred, and both his party and the public paid far more attention to him, seated silent and reserved, than to noisy talkers and foolish busybodies. He continued in the Parliament until it was destroyed by the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon in 1851. Not being what the French call a "man of action," he escaped exile, but his heart was cruelly wrung by the shipwreck of the republican cause, and he resolved to take no further part in politics. To occupy himself he undertook a translation of Dante, and had made considerable progress with it when death struck him. It remains to be added that so intense was his hatred of the Roman-catholic religion, that, in his last illness, he would not allow a priest to approach him, and he gave peremptory orders that his body should be buried without any religious service whatsoever. He also ordered that it should be interred—not in a separate vault, but in the large pit reserved for the extremely poor, who leave no friends at all, or friends who are unable to pay the modest fee required for the temporary occupation of a grave.

TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

In November last, a new building, erected at the expense of Government, was opened for the use of the Royal Artillery Regimental Institution of Woolwich, and the first introductory lecture was given last week, in the new Lecture Room, by Colonel Sabine. Under the active exertions of the Secretary and Assistant-Secretary, Captains Lefroy and Eardley-Wilmot, with the support of their brother officers, a stimulus has been given to the working of this Institution, which promises to be of great national benefit to science. No class of men have such opportunities for turning scientific knowledge to good account as the officers of Her Majesty's army or navy. Their duties carry them to all parts of the world, and wherever stationed they have abundant time on their hands for observation and study. But scientific observations are worse than valueless unless founded on a correct elementary knowledge, and pursued with correct views. The Regimental Institution at Woolwich,

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which is self-supported, affords facilities for acquiring practical instruction in modern languages and in veterinary science; it supplies the use of instruments for surveying or astronomy; has a spacious and well-fitted laboratory for manipulation in chemistry, rooms for practising drawing, photography, letterpress and lithographic printing, wood-cutting, taxidermy, &c.; a growing library of useful scientific works, a lecture-room, well-fitted with furnace and experimental apparatus, and a museum. For the advantage of officers at foreign stations the following note has been circulated for their guidance in procuring specimens:—“The space available for the purposes of a museum consists of two rooms, one thirty-one by thirty-one feet, to be appropriated chiefly to natural history, and one of thirty-four by twenty feet, intended for geology and mineralogy. There are twenty-seven upright glass cases, giving, as at present arranged, an aggregate of five hundred and fifty feet of shelf accommodation; and eight flat cases, giving an aggregate of two hundred and sixty square feet for the display of small objects. In addition to this, space can be found in passages for nine more upright cases, giving an aggregate addition of three or four hundred feet of shelf, should it be required; and the space under each of the flat cases can be filled hereafter with drawers; so that, on the whole, there is no prospect of the collection outgrowing the space available for its accommodation for many years to come. The plan of the museum to be formed has not yet been finally determined by the Committee, which has sought the advice of several gentlemen eminent in various branches of science, before a decision. Its general nature and arrangement, however, will be determined on principles of utility rather than display. It will, as much as possible, be made complete for purposes of instruction, with especial reference to the opportunities and requirements of officers of the regiment. The following appropriation of the case in the Natural History room, kindly suggested by Dr. J. E. Gray, of the British Museum, will serve as an example:—Cases 1, 2, 3, mammalia. Examples of the small species, with a view only to illustrate the principles of classification. Cases 4, 5, 6, 7, birds. The same, but less restricted. Case 8, reptiles. Case 9, 10, fishes, dried, or preserved in spirits. Case 11, mollusca. Cases 12, 13, economical botany. Cases 14, 15, ethnography, or illustrations of the weapons, utensils, manufactures, &c., of the uncivilized tribes with whom British troops are brought in contact. The flat cases he has suggested to devote to birds' eggs and skulls, land and sea shells, star fish, corals, insects, and miscellaneous small objects. At the present time (January, 1854) the Institution possesses but slender beginnings, under each of the above heads; and there is scarcely a colony or station from which contributions will not be acceptable, and more particularly of birds' skins, eggs, and skulls, corals, land shells, sea shells, and insects. Instructions for collecting and preserving these objects will be furnished on demand. In the geological department, the Institution possesses a good nucleus for a collection, but is wanting in fossils for the following formations of the British series:—Lower Silurian, Devonian, Triassic, Wealden, Greensand, Chalk, Upper Eocene, and Pliocene. All colonial fossils will be very acceptable. In the mineral department the Institution possesses a good collection of metallic minerals, chiefly presented by the family of the late lamented Col. Colquhoun. The series of non-metallic minerals, and of hand specimens of rocks, is far from complete. In each department are many blanks and indifferent specimens, which it is hoped will gradually be replaced by better ones. There are very few land or sea shells at present. The corals include some fine West Indian and Bermudian specimens, but are far from nearly representing this interesting family. Of fishes, reptiles, insects, and many families of mollusca, there are, as yet, but the smallest beginning of a collection. In concluding this short notice of the present state of the Museum of the Institution, the Committee cannot but point out to their brother officers, that

great and peculiar opportunities for forming a collection at Woolwich, which will combine many interests, both personal and public, with a great degree of scientific value. A body of collectors in most parts of the world—opportunities of free transmutation—access to all the sources of information and instruction afforded by the neighbourhood of London—are advantages such as few other establishments possess. By a system of exchange, such as the Committee hope to establish, not only will all contributions, even of objects already in the Museum, become available for its improvement, but a most useful and creditable part will be filled by the Institution,—that of supplying to collectors less fortunately circumstanced, and especially to those provincial museums,—to the development of which an eminent scientific man has said that 'we must look, in future, for the extension of intellectual pursuits throughout the land,' the means of rendering their collections more available for that high purpose. The means are to be found in every colony, and almost at every station, —for the commonest objects at one become rarities at another; and the most familiar things to a body of men whose motto bespeaks their home, may be grateful donations to establishments whose opportunities are only such as personal zeal can command, with limited connexions and still more limited funds. With the hope that a very few years will see the realization of these anticipations, the Committee now calls on members of the Institution to make the improvement of their Museum an object of exertion and interest." A large number of the officers of the corps assembled in the Lecture Room of the Institution on Thursday week, to hear Colonel Sabine's introductory lecture, and we trust that the members will promptly avail themselves of the means of learning that which in the fulness of its exercise may earn for them a name distinguished in the arts of peace as well as of war.

By the death of Charles, Marquis of Londonderry, another of the notables of the times of the great European war has been removed. The military services of the late peer were most distinguished. His first campaign was in Holland in 1794, and throughout the Peninsular war he was present at most of the great events, bearing the reputation of being one of the best cavalry officers in the English army. To historical literature he performed a useful service in editing the correspondence, despatches, and papers of his brother, Viscount Castlereagh, about whose administration of home affairs there is wide diversity of opinion, but who had the singular good fortune of managing well the most important national transactions that occurred in his time, from his Lord Lieutenancy of Ireland at the period of the Union, down to the signing of the Treaty of Paris. Of Lord Londonderry's manner of editing the 'Castlereagh Papers,' we took notice on the appearance of the last two volumes, ('L. G.', 1853, p. 469.)

The treaty between France and Belgium for the protection of literary and artistic property, concluded in August last, is about to be ratified and promulgated. Like all previous conventions of the same kind, it expressly prohibits piracy in every shape, and secures authors, musical composers, and artists fair remuneration for the reproduction of their works. With respect to dramatic authors, it enacts that they shall be paid for each performance of their pieces—such payment not to exceed a certain specified tariff, which varies according to the population of the town in which the pieces are played. This treaty is for France the most important which she has yet concluded, as Belgium has for years been accustomed to pillage her authors in the most scandalous way. It now only remains for the United States to conclude a treaty with Great Britain, for literary and artistic piracy to be virtually destroyed root and branch. A literary convention between France and the Principality of Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen was formally promulgated in the official 'Moniteur' a few days ago.

The recent ecclesiastical obituary contains the deaths of the Bishop of Salisbury; of Dr. Jenkyns, the master of Balliol; and of Dr. Richards, rector of Pembroke College, Oxford. We are not aware

of Bishop Denison having published anything except a volume of sermons. Dr. Jenkyns' claims to honourable remembrance by literary men rests chiefly on his public spirit and liberality as head of his college, where he succeeded gradually in opening the foundation, and the fellowships of the last twenty years having been the reward of merit instead of the result of nomination, the reputation of Balliol has risen far above that of more favoured colleges. One of the first of the new Fellows of Balliol was Dr. Tait, the successor of Arnold at Rugby, now the Dean of Carlisle.

At the Institute of Actuaries some important discussions have taken place, on the 'Decimal Coinage.' The subject was introduced by Mr. Thomson, of Edinburgh, who gave a historical notice of the use of the decimal system in national coinage. The feeling of the members present was unanimous in favour of the proposed change, but great diversity of opinion was elicited as to the best mode of carrying out the new coinage. The discussion was adjourned to a subsequent meeting, held on the 27th February, when the following resolution, after considerable discussion, moved by Mr. Hill Williams, seconded by Mr. Tucker, was carried unanimously,—"That this meeting is of opinion that the plan recommended by the Decimal Coinage Committee of 1853 is the best plan that has been proposed, and that the Council be requested to prepare a petition to Parliament urging the adoption of that plan, with a recommendation for the issue of four-mil pieces, as necessary for the protection of the poorer classes." Lord Overstone, Mr. Wood, Chairman of the Inland Revenue; Mr. Brown, M.P., Chairman of the Decimal Coinage Committee, and others who have paid much attention to the subject, took part in the discussion. With the resolution as adopted by the meeting we entirely concur. The issuing of four-mil pieces will remove many of the objections raised on the ground of the loss of 'the poor man's penny.' It was generally admitted that no change can be allowed in the use of the 1*l.*, as integer of account.

War, though it has already emptied the French Government's treasury, has not prevented it from extending its usual generous protection to art. Within the last week, it has given commissions to about fifteen of the principal engravers of France to execute engravings of paintings by Paul Veronese, Lesueur, Luini, Correggio, Andrea del Sarto, and other masters. The total amount of these commissions is not less than 860*l.* Amongst the gentlemen who have obtained them are M. Henriquel Dupont (of the Institute), M. Francois, M. Pollet, M. St. Eve, M. Lefèvre, M. Caron, M. Dien, and M. Bein.

Dr. Thomas Thomson, whose valuable geological and botanical researches in Tibet, in company with Dr. Joseph Hooker, have placed him in the first rank of naturalists, has been recommended by the Council of the Geographical Society to accompany the proposed North Australian Exploring Expedition.

Amongst the works recently put into the 'Index' of Rome as mischievous and dangerous, and therefore not to be read, are the 'Theological Essays' of Professor Maurice, and the 'Encyclopédie Moderne,' published by the Messrs. Didot of Paris.

The Philharmonic Society commenced its season on Monday evening, at the Hanover Square Rooms, under Mr. Costa's conductorship. Mozart's Jupiter Sinfonia and Beethoven's Pastoral Sinfonia were among the pieces. The chief vocalists were Mr. Sims Reeves and Signor Belletti, and Mrs. Thompson, pianiste. The new Philharmonic is to commence its season next week in St. Martin's Hall, under the auspices of Herr Lindpaintner and Dr. Wyld. At Exeter Hall, a grand performance of Haydn's *Creation*, by the Sacred Harmonic Society, took place on Friday evening. The Harmonie Union are preparing to give Handel's *Judas Maccabeus*. The subscription and benefit concerts of the season are beginning to multiply rapidly, but our notices must be confined to any events of novelty or special interest. At Mr.

Lindsay Sloper's chamber concert, in the New Beethoven Rooms, on Tuesday evening, he introduced an effective and brilliant composition of his own, a *Pastorale* and *Valse Capricieuse*, and an air, not of much melody, composed for words sung by Miss Amy Dolby, a young singer whose progress lately has been very marked. MM. Sainton, Dando, Lucas, and Signor Belletti, were Mr. Sloper's other conductors.

The 116th anniversary festival of the Royal Society of Musicians was held at the Freemasons' Tavern this week, T. H. Hall, Esq., F.R.S., in the chair. The treasurer's report announced the annual receipts for 1853 to be 2998*l.* 15s. 8d. against 2679*l.* 14s. 11d. disbursements. The ninth anniversary of the Royal Theatrical Fund is to take place on the 10th, at the London Tavern, R. Monckton Milnes, Esq., M.P., to preside.

Mr. Gye, of the Italian Theatre, Covent Garden, has come to an arrangement with Meyerbeer, for the production, in the course of the season, of his new comic opera, the *Northern Star*; and it is said that Mr. Besle, the music-publisher, has agreed to pay him 600*l.* for the right of reprinting the music in England. The distinguished composer is, we understand, peculiarly pleased with his contracts with these gentlemen, as they are not only advantageous in themselves, but are a proof that his popularity in England is rapidly rising to what it has long been in France and Germany. M. Brandus, the music-publisher of Paris, has, we hear, paid Meyerbeer not less than 3200*l.* for the privilege of selling the score of the *Etoile du Nord* in France.

There have been some dramatic novelties during the week, but not of very great note. At the Lyceum has been produced M. Alfred de Musset's one-act comedy, *Un Caprice*, in the English guise of *The Charming Widow*, a piece of slight but good material, representing the cure of a dubious husband, and the comforting of a fond wife, Mr. and Mrs. Montague (Mr. C. Mathews and Miss M. Oliver), through the clever management of a friend, Mrs. Pierrepont (Miss Talbot), who puts Montague out of conceit of a purse given to him by the charming widow, Lady Darlington, and restores him to a due sense of the worth of his domestic purse-knitter. Miss Talbot is an entirely new actress, who, in personal appearance, manner, and voice, possesses unusual advantages, and will prove a valuable acquisition to the stage in characters combining intelligence and taste with ladylike dignity. Mr. Mathews has been most fortunate in his pieces this winter, his play-bills having been almost stereotyped since before Christmas, and *Patter v. Clatter*, and *Bachelor of Hearts*, and *Once on a Time*, are still in unabated demand. At Drury Lane a new farce, *My Cook and Housekeeper*, was produced, the substance of which is good, but with points of caricature and exaggeration capable of removal. An old misanthropic bachelor, Mr. Grumbleby (Mr. A. Younge), is provoked to within an inch of suicide by the conduct of his domestics, especially in the matter of falsehood. An honest hodman (Mr. Belton), who finds and restores his lost pocket-book, and seems a personification of *naïve* truth, is engaged by the delighted Grumbleby as his confidential valet, chiefly to act as a check on the deception of the other servants. The inconveniences resulting from the excess of Joe's candour, and the attempted corruption of his principles of veracity by the housekeeper (Miss Featherstone), afford scope for some lively scenes. The favourable reception of the piece was chiefly due to the good acting of Mr. Younge as the misanthrope. At the Olympic an amusing piece, *To oblige Benson*, gives opportunity for the display of Mr. F. Robson's peculiar genius and talent. In low comedy he has wonderful power of expression, more in action than in speech, his whole body speaking irresistible drollery, though sometimes of rather rough a kind.

The theatrical week at Paris has been neither prolific nor brilliant; two or three *vaudevilles* of no great merit and less originality, and a grand military drama, have alone been produced. The latter, which figures at the Ambigu, is a modification of

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the *Battle of Fontenoy*, which was forbidden some time ago by the censorship as likely to be offensive to the English. One of the *vaudevilles* at the Palais Royal is shamefully indecent—even for that house. Really, the good Parisians should discourage the incessant outrages of morality in which their dramatists unaccountably appear to delight—we say unaccountably, for they would not like to be accused of being without *esprit*, and yet most assuredly 'want of decency is want of wit.'

The great importance attached to theatrical matters in Paris has more than once been noticed in this journal. The last week has produced another example of it:—Mdle. Denain, of the Théâtre Français, brought an action before the Civil Tribunal, against M. Houssaye, director of the theatre, for the purpose of compelling him to allow her to play the part of *Queen Anne* in M. Scribe's comedy, *Le Verre d'Eau* about to be reproduced. She founded her claim on the fact that she is the *chef d'emploi* of that class of parts, and that therefore, according to the imperial decree drawn up by Napoleon at Moscow, she alone had the right to be *Queen Anne*, more especially as she had originally 'created' the part. But the director represented that though very sorry to offend so useful a member of his company, he had no alternative, as no less a personage than his excellency M. Fould, Minister of State and of the Imperial Household, had decreed that Mdle. Brohan should play the rôle; and in support of his assertion he produced a decree, drawn up by M. Fould, "in the name of the Emperor," under his hand and seal, and countersigned by the Secretary-General of his department, in which the distribution of the parts in *Le Verre d'Eau* was duly set forth, and in which Mdle. Brohan was put down as *Anne*. In presence of this august document the tribunal declared that it could afford the fair complainant no redress.

PROCEEDINGS OF SOCIETIES.

ROYAL.—March 9th.—Thomas Bell, Esq., V.P., in the chair. A paper was read 'On a new and more correct method of determining the angle of aperture of microscopic object glasses.' By W. S. Gillett, M.A. At the conclusion of the paper, the author exhibited his apparatus in the library.

ROYAL INSTITUTION.—Jan. 27th.—Col. Philip J. Yorke, F.R.S., Pres. Chem. Soc., in the chair. John Tyndall, Esq., Ph.D., F.R.S., Professor of Natural Philosophy, Royal Institution, 'On the Vibration and Tones produced by the Contact of Bodies having different Temperatures.' In the year 1805, M. Schwartz, an inspector of one of the smelting works of Saxony, placed a cup-shaped mass of hot silver upon a cold anvil, and was surprised to find that musical tones proceeded from the mass. In the autumn of the same year, Professor Gilbert of Berlin visited the smelting works and repeated the experiment. He observed that the sounds were accompanied by a quivering of the hot silver, and that when the vibrations ceased, the sound ceased also. Professor Gilbert merely stated the facts, and made no attempt to explain them. In the year 1829, Mr. Arthur Trevelyan, being engaged in spreading pitch with a hot plastering iron, and once observing that the iron was too hot for his purpose, he laid it slantingly against a block of lead which chanced to be at hand; a shrill note, which he compared to that of the chanter of the small Northumberland pipes, proceeded from the mass, and, on nearer inspection, he observed that the heated iron was in a state of vibration. He was induced by Dr. Reid of Edinburgh to pursue the subject, and the results of his numerous experiments were subsequently printed in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. On the 1st of April, 1831, these singular sounds and vibrations formed the subject of a Friday Evening Lecture by Professor Faraday, at the Royal Institution. Professor Faraday expanded and further established the explanation of the sounds given by Mr. Trevelyan and Sir John Leslie. He referred

them to the tapping of the hot mass against the cold one underneath it, the taps being in many cases sufficiently quick to produce a high musical note. The alternate expansion and contraction of the cold mass at the points where the hot rocker descends upon it, he regarded as the sustaining power of the vibrations. The superiority of lead he ascribed to its great expansibility, combined with its feeble power of conduction, which latter prevented the heat from being quickly diffused through the mass. Professor J. D. Forbes of Edinburgh was present at this Lecture, and not feeling satisfied with the explanation, undertook the further examination of the subject; his results are described in a highly ingenious paper communicated to the Royal Society of Edinburgh in 1833. He rejects the explanation supported by Professor Faraday, and refers the vibrations to "a new species of mechanical agency in heat"—a repulsion exercised by the heat itself on passing from a good conductor to a bad one. This conclusion is based upon a number of general laws established by Professor Forbes. If these laws be correct, then indeed a great step has been taken towards a knowledge of the intimate nature of heat itself, and this consideration was the Lecturer's principal stimulus in resuming the examination of the subject. He had already made some experiments, ignorant that the subject had been further treated by Seebeck, until informed of the fact by Professor Magnus of Berlin. On reading Seebeck's interesting paper, he found that many of the results which it was his intention to seek had been already obtained. The portion of the subject which remained untouched was, however, of sufficient interest to induce him to prosecute his original intention. The general laws of Professor Forbes were submitted in succession to an experimental examination. The first of these laws affirms that "the vibrations never take place between substances of the same nature." This the Lecturer found to be generally the case when the hot rocker rested upon a *block*, or on the edge of a thick plate of the same metal; but the case was quite altered when a thin plate of metal was used. Thus, a copper rocker laid upon the edge of a penny-piece did not vibrate permanently; but when the coin was beaten out by a hammer, so as to present a thin sharp edge, constant vibrations were obtained. A silver rocker resting on the edge of a half-crown refused to vibrate permanently: but on the edge of a sixpence continuous vibrations were obtained. An iron rocker on the edge of a dinner knife gave continuous vibrations. A flat brass rocker placed upon the points of two common brass pins, and having its handle suitably supported, gave distinct vibrations. In these experiments the plates and pins were fixed in a vice, and it was found that the thinner the plate, within its limits of rigidity, the more certain and striking was the effect. Vibrations were thus obtained with iron on iron, copper on copper, brass on brass, zinc on zinc, silver on silver, tin on tin. The list might be extended, but the cases cited are sufficient to show that the proposition above cited cannot be regarded as expressing "a general law." The second general law enunciated by Professor Forbes is, that "both substances must be metallic." This is the law which first attracted the Lecturer's attention. During the progress of a kindred inquiry, he had discovered that certain non-metallic bodies are endowed with powers of conduction far higher than had been hitherto supposed, and the thought occurred to him that such bodies might, by suitable treatment, be made to supply the place of metals in the production of vibrations. This anticipation was realized. Rockers of silver, copper, and brass, placed upon the natural edge of a prism of rock-crystal, gave distinct tones; on the clean edge of a cube of fluor spar the tones were still more musical; on a mass of rock-salt the vibrations were very forcible. There is scarcely a substance, metallic or non-metallic, on which vibrations can be obtained with greater ease and certainty than on rock-salt. In most cases a high temperature is necessary to the production of the tones, but in the case of rock-salt the temperature need not exceed that of the blood. A new and singular property is thus found to belong to

this already remarkable substance. It is needless to enter into a full statement regarding the various minerals submitted to experiment. Upwards of twenty non-metallic substances had been examined by the Lecturer, and distinct vibrations obtained with every one of them. The number of exceptions here exhibited far exceeds that of the substances which are mentioned in the paper of Professor Forbes, and are, it was imagined, sufficient to show that the second general law is untenable. The third general law states, that "the vibrations take place with an intensity proportional (within certain limits) to the difference of the conducting powers of the metals for heat, the metal having the least conducting power being necessarily the coldest." The evidence adduced against the first law appears to destroy this one also; for if the intensity of the vibrations be proportional to the difference of the conducting powers, then, where there is no such difference, there ought to be no vibrations. But it has been proved in half a dozen cases, that vibrations occur between different pieces of the same metal. The condition stated by Professor Forbes was, however, reversed. Silver stands at the head of conductors; a strip of the metal was fixed in a vice, and hot rockers of brass, copper, and iron, were successively laid upon its edge; distinct vibrations were obtained with all of them. Vibrations were also obtained with a brass rocker which rested on the edge of a half-sovereign. These and other experiments show that it is not necessary that the worst conductor should be the cold metal, as affirmed in the third general law above quoted. Among the metals, antimony and bismuth were found perfectly inert by Professor Forbes; the Lecturer however had obtained musical tones from both of these substances. The superiority of lead as a cold block, Professor Faraday, as already stated, referred to its high expansibility, combined with its deficient conducting power. Against this notion, which he considers to be "an obvious oversight," Professor Forbes contends in an ingenious and apparently unanswerable manner. The vibrations, he urges, depend upon the difference of temperature existing between the rocker and the block; if the latter be a bad conductor and retain the heat at its surface, the tendency is to bring both the surfaces in contact to the same temperature, and thus to stop the vibration instead of exalting it. Further, the greater the quantity of heat transmitted from the rocker to the block during contact, the greater must be the expansion, and hence, if the vibrations be due to this cause, the effect must be a maximum when the block is the best conductor possible. But Professor Forbes, in this argument, seems to have used the term expansion in two different senses. The expansion which produces the vibration is the sudden upheaval of the point where the hot rocker comes in contact with the cold mass underneath; but the expansion due to good conduction would be an expansion of the general mass. Imagine the conductive power of the block to be infinite; that is to say, that the heat imparted by the rocker is instantly diffused equally throughout the block; then, though the general expansion might be very great, the local expansion at the point of contact would be wanting, and no vibrations would be possible. The inevitable consequence of good conduction is, to cause a sudden abstraction of the heat from the point of contact of the rocker with the substance underneath, and this the Lecturer conceived to be the precise reason why Professor Forbes had failed to obtain vibrations when the cold metal was a good conductor. He made use of *blocks*, and the abstraction of heat from the place of contact by the circumjacent mass of metal was so sudden as to extinguish the local elevation on which the vibrations depend. In the experiments described by the Lecturer, this abstraction was to a great extent avoided, by reducing the metallic masses to thin laminae, and thus the very experiments adduced by Professor Forbes against the theory supported by Professor Faraday appear, when duly considered, to be converted into strong corroborative proofs of the correctness of the views of the philosopher last mentioned.

GEOGRAPHICAL.—Feb. 13th.—Sir Roderick I. Murchison, Vice-President, in the chair. Henry Donkin, William McDowell, William Philps, John Power, J. Arthur Power, M.A., Esqrs., and J. Stopford Taylor, M.D., were elected Fellows. The papers read were,—1. ‘The Cerro de Pasco and its Silver Mines,’ by Colonel Lloyd, communicated by H. R. H. Prince Albert. 2. Letter from Mr. Amos Scott, of the Royal Sappers and Miners, on Western Australia, communicated through Colonel Portlock and Captain Scott, R.E. The chairman congratulated the Society on the information just arrived from Bombay, that a meeting in favour of the Bellot Testimonial Fund had been held, which was presided over by the Governor-General, Lord Elphinstone, supported by the Bishop of Bombay, Sir H. Leake, Commodore Lambert, and many influential persons, both English and natives.

Feb. 27th.—The Earl of Ellesmere, President, in the chair. Lieut.-Col. P. Melville, Capt. F. A. Shadwell, R.N., Capt. A. P. E. Wilmot, R.N., the Rev. John Kennedy, M.A., Norman Cowley, G. Farmer, Benjamin Ifill, John H. Johnson, and Alfred R. Wallace, Esqrs., were elected Fellows. The papers read were—1. ‘Successful exploration of the River Murray, by Capt. Cadell and Governor Sir Henry Young, in the *Lady Augusta* steamer,’ communicated through the Colonial Office. It was stated that the river has proved to be navigable for 1300 miles, and will become the channel of an immense carrying trade. Sir Roderick Murchison observed that he had received a very interesting letter from Capt. Cadell, with reference to the further examination of the river and its great tributaries. The original exploration of the Murray by Capt. Sturt was also adverted to in connexion with the results of his labours in the settlement of South Australia, and the great internal navigation now opened up. 2. ‘Observations on the proposed North Australian Expedition,’ under Capt. Stokes, R.N., by Capt. Sturt, F.R.G.S. 3. ‘Remarks on the Exploration of North Australia,’ by Capt. Stokes, R.N., F.R.G.S. Attention was drawn to the importance of examining the northern part of the Australian continent, about eight years ago, and routes of exploration were laid down on the map accompanying my account of ‘Discoveries in Australia.’ Those routes were as follows:—From the Victoria to the Gulf of Carpentaria; southwards from the head of the latter; and eastward to the coast. The last route has been intersected by Dr. Leichhardt, and also by my much lamented gentlemanly and Christian friend, Mr. Kennedy. The death of Mr. Kennedy and others of his party took place within sight of the sea, and under circumstances calculated to render the co-operation of a vessel on the coast highly essential in such expeditions. In Leichhardt’s expedition, Mr. Gilbert, the naturalist, who accompanied him, was killed, and several of the party were dangerously wounded within twenty-five miles of the sea; but the party were nevertheless without any means of succour for six months after that deplorable event. It cannot be doubted that if either of these expeditions had enjoyed efficient marine support, their results, however satisfactory, would have been incomparably greater. In the present case the vessel necessary to convey the party to its destination may be most usefully employed on the shores of the Gulf, in discovering the mouths and navigable extent of the numerous rivers known to exist there,—in examining the intervening country,—perhaps in communicating and offering occasional succour to the main body of explorers coming eastward from the Victoria, and also in providing a point of retreat for them if necessary. Our knowledge of the north-western part of the continent is very limited, and the Victoria River offers great facilities for penetrating that part of the interior; if I may hazard an opinion, it is that before two or three degrees of latitude have been traversed, beyond my farthest position on that river, the party will have crossed the ranges trending to the north-east, through Arnhem Land, and may expect much desert, interspersed with better country. Whatever may be its character, it will of course influence the route of the explorers

as to how far southwards they should proceed before turning towards the shores of the Gulf. A glance at the map will suffice to show that the Gulf of Carpentaria affords the readiest means for exploring the 400 miles only of unknown country lying between its head-waters and Sturt’s and Mitchell’s farthest. Although Captain Sturt’s progress was impeded by the great central desert, Sir Thomas Mitchell reports the country 400 miles more to the eastward to be the best watered portion of Australia that he had seen, and that it was open and well watered in the direction of the Gulf of Carpentaria. The exploration of this part of Australia having been undertaken by the Government at the present moment, will, I am assured, be gratefully appreciated by the colonists; and although greater geographical interest may be attached to the investigation of the interior from the Victoria, still I am inclined to believe that the immediate views of the colonists will be directed to the investigation of the country to the S.E. of the Gulf of Carpentaria, and to the opening of a route thence to the settled districts, which has already been the object of two expeditions. Without venturing any direct opinion on the right of possession, it may not be foreign to the subject to allude to the recent occupation of New Caledonia as a penal settlement by the French Government. That island possesses nearly 400 miles of sheltered roadstead, besides many excellent harbours; and, from its position, commands the communication between Australia and India, China, Polynesia, South America, and in some measure New Zealand. As a dépôt for a rival trade, its being so much nearer the populous islands of the Pacific than our southern colonies, appears to render the immediate extension of our settlements northward necessary to counteract its influence. It may be hoped that the present expedition will lead to the formation of a settlement at the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria. The establishment of a French penal settlement at New Caledonia would probably cause the employment of our own criminals on public works at a distance so remote to be more favourably received by the southern settlements. The objections which have properly risen from the almost indiscriminate employment of criminals under sentence in the private families of free settlers might be advantageously obviated by restricting them to public works. The facilities which a colony presents for moral reclamation, as well as for economical detention, far exceed those of an old country; and without this species of forced labour, the progress of a remote new settlement must be exposed to many difficulties which might thus be overcome. I have perhaps allowed anticipation to carry me beyond the immediate purpose of the expedition, from which, however, results of the greatest importance may arise beyond even those which are contemplated. Mr. J. Beete Jukes gave a sketch of the geology of Australia so far as it bore upon its physical geography, stating that the stratified rocks of Australia belonged to two great groups,—the Palaeozoic, or older formations, and the Tertiary, or modern ones. The Palaeozoic, or older formations, with their associated igneous rocks, comprised all the mountain chains and high broken land, and the Tertiary, or newer rocks, all the great plains. He then described briefly the chain of the Eastern coast running north and south; the minor chains of the colony of Victoria, which run north and south, and whose united bases form a water-bed south of the river Murray; the north and south chain of South Australia, and that of Western Australia, with the great plains which stretch around and between these, and which for the most part form great tracts of arid and desert land. He then described what is known of the northern part of Australia, pointing out that on the north-west coast between Northwest Cape and Dampier’s Land is a flat coast, stretching in apparently boundless plains into the interior, and that the same is true of the country round the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria. These great plains he judged by analogy to be of Tertiary rock; but between the Gulf of Carpentaria and Dampier’s Land, a lofty and broken country is described by King, Stokes, and Leichhardt, the rocks

being chiefly thick bedded sandstones, always dipping to the south or south-east, sometimes at angles of 50 deg., and ending towards the north in steep and perpendicular escarpments. Between this high broken table land and the sea is a flat country, composed of horizontally stratified sandstone, which he had examined at Port Essington, and which appeared to be most probably of Tertiary origin. Mr. Jukes thought it highly probable, that as horizontal Tertiary rocks were known to stretch unbroken for 800 miles round the great Australian bight, and round all the lower basin of the Murray river, and through all the flat land of Victoria, and these plains, as shown by Sturt, were continuous with the great desert plain of the interior, that the broad desert flats which stretched along the north-west coast and round the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria were equally conterminous with the great central desert, and that almost the entire of the interior of Australia was one vast arid and desert plain. He supported his views by allusion to the known facts of the meteorology of the country. He nevertheless held it to be most necessary that the question should be solved, but declared his opinion to be against the chalking out of any definite large plan or route to be followed by the expedition, and in favour of a light exploratory party, landing at several points, such as the Victoria and Albert rivers, and proceeding as far as they could in one or two directions, always retaining the vessel to fall back upon in case of disaster, or in case of great obstacles or a worthless tract being met with, when they might be conveyed to another part of the coast where the operation might be repeated. He believed that a larger and better knowledge of the country might be obtained thus by a few tentative expeditions at different points, than by a party being thrown bodily into the centre of a great desert, where their energies and attention must be occupied as much in ensuring their own preservation and escape to the rendezvous as in noting the structure of the country. The President announced the publication of the General Index to the second ten volumes of the ‘Journal,’ as well as the twenty-third volume of the Society’s ‘Transactions,’ and congratulated the Society upon the increased size and value of this volume, and observed that, having read it very attentively, he was happy to say that he considered it perhaps the most valuable volume that had been published by the Society, containing, as it does, eleven maps with other illustrations. His lordship finally mentioned that he had recommended, by the direction of the Council, to the duke of Newcastle, the employment, besides Captain Stokes, of Captain Sturt, Dr. Thomas Thomson, and Mr. Thomas Baines, to accompany the proposed North Australian expedition; and also expressed a hope that Mr. Wilson might be employed as one of the party, in the capacity of a geologist and mineralogist.

ASTRONOMICAL.—Jan. 13th.—G. B. Airy, Esq., in the chair. J. R. Christie, Esq., Rev. W. J. Read, Eyre Burton Powell, Esq., James William Grant, Esq., and Rev. Robert Harley, Airedale College, Bradford, were elected Fellows of the Society. ‘Some Suggestions in Explanation of the Cause of the Primitive Incandescent Condition of the Earth and other Planets.’ By James Nasmyth, Esq. Among the many facts which geological research has developed, there appears none more clearly established than that of the igneous, or molten, condition of the entire mass of our globe at some vastly remote era of its physical history; and that its present condition is the result of a succession of changes consequent on the escape, or passage into space, of the greater portion of that primitive heat, the residue of which yet manifests itself deep under the now solid crust of the earth in those molten outbursts which the now comparatively few active volcanoes vomit forth, and which we may consider to be the expiring vestiges of the once universal molten state of our globe. As I have not met with any attempt to trace to its source, or assign a cause of, this primitive molten condition of the earth, in the most

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earnest but humble spirit of philosophic suggestion and inquiry I desire to offer in this brief form the result of some thoughts on this interesting subject, in the hope that the following remarks may chance to suggest further investigation, and so yield results more worthy of so grand a subject. In order to state in the most simple form the principle upon which I base my speculations on the source of the primitive heat of our globe, I would refer to the well-known principle in the laws of matter—namely, that when matter, whether in the solid, fluid, or gaseous condition, is, by some external or internal force or agency, caused to occupy less space, heat is evolved. Applying this general principle to what there is such strong reason to suppose was the first condition of that matter which was destined to form our globe, and carrying our ideas back to the first moments of its physical history at which we may suppose it to have been summoned forth into existence as a nebulous mass, either distinct and separate, or as a separated portion from a greater nebulous mass, and granting that the law of gravitation was co-existent,—it appears to me that if we assume these conditions, the inevitable result of the action of the law of gravitation, operating on the particles of matter composing a nebulous mass, would be a progressive decrease, or collapse, of the original volume of such nebulous mass, and that the result of this decrease of volume by the collapse action of gravitation would be accompanied by rise of temperature, more especially at the centre of gravity of the mass, where a nucleus would be formed, and upon whose surface myriads of particles would come crowding inwards and attach themselves. While, by the general collapse of the entire mass of the nebulous body, resulting, as before said, from the action of gravitation of its particles towards its centre of gravity, that heat which was latent in the original or primitive expanded volume of the nebulous mass would come forth and manifest itself as active heat, most intense nearest to where the focus of action lay, where it would result in a glow of fervent intensity, of which we can form no adequate conception. In this manner I conceive the temperature of the nucleus would continue to increase, while the dimensions or volume of the nebulous mass went on diminishing, through ages of time, until the temperature of the nucleus reached such a pitch of intensity, as to begin to check the accelerating influx of particles by the dispersive influence of the intense heat of the nucleus. Then would ensue an era of retardation in the progressive accumulation of matter upon the nucleus; and its after history would most probably be governed by the combined action of gravitational accumulation and those changes which would result from the continual escape of the heat of the remaining nebulous envelope, and so render the matter of which it was composed more subject to the attractive influence of the globe now existing within it. I conceive that countless ages might thus elapse, through the mutual action of the agencies I have referred to, ere such globe had commenced the earliest stages of its geological history, which would date from that period when all further accession of temperature was at an end, and the nucleus (now a planet) began to part with its primitive heat by its radiation into space. Thus I have endeavoured to assign as the cause of the primitive incandescent temperature of planetary masses, the action of gravitation upon the nebulous matter of which they are conceived to have been formed: the action of gravitation overtaking in its collapsing influence that gradual decrease of volume, which might otherwise have occurred through simple contraction, and so expressing the heat latent in the nebulous volume, and causing it to come forth as sensible heat in most active condition, and so manifest itself in a state of intense incandescence in the nucleus or planetary mass. Should these remarks tend in the most humble degree to suggest some further thoughts on this subject to such of the members of the Royal Astronomical Society who may happen to turn their attention to these speculations, I shall feel glad in having thus ventured on suggesting them.

SOCIETY OF ARTS.—Feb. 22nd.—The Rev. Dr. Booth, F.R.S., in the chair. A paper was read by Dr. John Stenhouse, F.R.S., ‘On the Deodorising and Disinfecting Properties of Charcoal, with the Description of a Charcoal Respirator for Purifying the Air by Filtration.’ The author commenced by remarking that he thought sufficient attention had not hitherto been bestowed on the effect which charcoal exerted upon complex products of decomposition—viz., that of rapidly oxidizing them, and resolving them into the simplest combinations they were capable of forming. The putrefaction of animal and vegetable substances was likewise, in general, a process of imperfect oxidation. Hence, under ordinary circumstances, when this was the case, a variety of more or less complex secondary products were formed, which usually possessed very disagreeable odours, and exerted exceedingly injurious effects upon the animal economy. To these substances the general name of *miasma* had been given. Not much was known of their nature, but they were believed to be heavy, complex, nitrogenated vapours, which were decomposed by oxygen, chlorine, sulphurous acid, nitric acid, and other disinfecting agents. The author then mentioned several instances in which the bodies of dead animals had been completely covered with thin layers of charcoal, which entirely prevented any effluvia or odour being perceptible. He considered that covering a church-yard to the depth of from two to three inches with coarsely powdered charcoal, would effectually prevent any putrid exhalations ever finding their way into the atmosphere. Charcoal, though a deodoriser or disinfecting agent, was not, as laid down by chemical works, an antiseptic. On the contrary, it favoured the rapid decomposition of the dead bodies with which it was in contact, so that in the course of six or eight months little was left except the bones. He then described a new species of respirator filled with powdered animal charcoal, to absorb and destroy any miasma or infectious particles present in the air in the case of fever, and cholera hospitals, and of districts infected by ague, yellow fever, and similar diseases. The respirator fitted closely to the lower portion of the face, extending from the chin to within half an inch of the eyes, and projected about an inch on either side of the mouth. It therefore included the nostrils as well as the mouth. The frame of the respirator was made of thin sheet copper, but the edges were formed of lead, and were padded and lined with velvet, so that it could be easily made to fit tightly to the face. The powdered charcoal was kept in its place by means of two sheets of fine wire gauze, about a quarter of an inch apart. The object in view was, by filtering the air through such a porous substance as animal charcoal, to intercept the miasma which might have got mixed with it. Repeated trials with the respirator had shown that certain noxious and offensive gases, such as ammonia, sulphuretted hydrogen, and hydrosulphate of ammonia, had been rapidly oxidized and destroyed in their passage through the pores of the charcoal.

CIVIL ENGINEERS.—Feb. 21st.—James Simpson, Esq., President, in the chair. The evening was devoted to the discussion of Mr. A. C. Hobbs's paper ‘On the Principles and Construction of Locks.’ A succinct description was given of the various recent modifications generally introduced by makers of locks, and it was argued that most of them were simply alterations of form, without materially adding to the security. An exception might, perhaps, be made in favour of Mr. Denison's lock, which was so constructed that the bolt was shot by turning a handle, without the intervention of a key, which, in fact, was only used for placing the tumblers in a proper position to allow the bolt to be withdrawn, or unlocked, by the handle—the keyhole being kept closed during the passage of the bolt: the key might, therefore, be always retained in the possession of one person, whilst the lock could be closed by any subordinate. This was important in banks and other similar establishments. The principle of the bolts being shot by a handle

was not new, but the other arrangements were admitted to possess novelty. Mr. Whishaw's electro-magnetic lock, now exhibiting at the Polytechnic Institution, was explained, but was admitted not to be applicable to all the ordinary uses for locks. The principle of Mr. Cotterill's ‘patent climax detector lock’ was then examined, and it was shown to be entirely based upon the Brahma lock, but was less secure in its arrangement, inasmuch as the form of the key admitted of so little variation in the depth of the grooves for moving the slides,—that a lock having six slides might be opened by the end pressure of a piece of soft wood,—and that any lock, on that principle, with any number of slides, could be easily picked by the pressure system. It was explained, that the American permutating lock, which had been so fully described in the paper, was not intended for ordinary domestic purposes, but for banks and establishments requiring extreme precautions for security, and that the chief object in the introduction of Hobbs's moveable stump, or protector lock, was to supply a secure lock at a moderate price. In the course of manufacturing, as might be naturally supposed, the weak points of this lock had not escaped detection, and it was soon discovered, that although the principle was correct, as long as the stump remained moveable, if, by any means, the stump could be held fast, the lock became one of the ordinary tumbler locks, and was as easily picked as the others. For instance, in a till, or drawer lock, where the key-hole was parallel to the bolt, it was easy, by the insertion of a piece of watchspring beneath the lock, to catch and hold the stump, and to open the lock. This, however, was readily prevented by the insertion of a tongue in the back plate, fitting into a corresponding groove in the back of the bolt, thus cutting off all access to the moveable piece under the bolt; and further, to preclude access to the stump itself, a piece of steel was riveted into the front plate, reaching through the tumblers into a groove in the bolt, thus placing an effectual barrier between the key-hole and the stump. With these slight additions, which were now introduced, it was contended that locks constructed on the principle of the moveable stump might be considered secure. It was shown that Mr. Goater, who was connected with the establishment of Mr. Chubb, had succeeded very ingeniously in picking three of Hobbs's till locks, by the means which had been described; those locks, however, not having the additions for security which had been alluded to. This opening of these locks was admitted to be perfectly legitimate, showing slight defects in the details of construction, but demonstrating the correctness of the principle; and it was argued, that it was only by such means that the manufacture of locks could be tested and improved—indeed, that the lockmakers were greatly indebted to Mr. Hobbs, for showing them the weak points of the locks constructed prior to 1851. The manufacture of locks in this mechanical country had hitherto been conducted in the rudest manner, and with the most primitive tools, and whilst the price of common and insecure locks was incredibly low, that of locks of good construction was much too high to introduce them into general use. It was therefore the object of Mr. Hobbs, by the employment of good machinery, to produce locks of uniformly correct construction on sound principles, and at such a modified scale of prices, as would insure their general adoption; being assured that whoever might be the maker, the most secure locks, at the lowest price, would eventually take the lead with the public.

ASIATIC.—Feb. 18th.—Beriah Botfield, Esq., in the chair. S. E. Rolland, Esq., delivered a lecture, giving an account of a journey over the mountain road to Mossul, between Diarbekr and Jezirah. In the winter of 1849 the party of which the lecturer was one left the Syrian shores of the Mediterranean, and crossed the Euphrates, en route to Mossul and Baghdad. It was their intention to proceed directly, by way of Orfa and Haren, through the Mesopotamian wilderness, but the accounts which they heard of the depredations of the

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Aneyzeh Arabs deterred them, and they were obliged to make a *détour* to the northward, to Diarbekr, hoping to find sufficient water in the Tigris to admit of their floating down the river to Mosul. The river being low, they were compelled to proceed by the tedious and circuitous route, through the mountains, to Jezirah. Diarbekr stands upon an elevated rocky range, on the edge of the Taurus, which forms the limit of Mesopotamia, on the side of Armenia. From Diarbekr the road ascends, and proceeds over well-wooded hills, overlooking highly-cultivated valleys, to Mardin. The inhabitants of this town have but an indifferent reputation, and frays frequently occur between the different sects. In 1848 a quarrel broke out between some Albanian soldiers and the people of the town. The soldiers retired to the citadel, and the Kurds and Christians to their respective quarters. A constant fire was kept up for about twenty-four hours, until their powder was exhausted, when it was found that not a single person had been wounded. There are but few remains of antiquity at Mardin. The arabesques on the gate of the citadel are unsurpassed, either in Spain, Egypt, or Turkey. Should the navigation of the Euphrates ever be carried out, Mardin would probably become the emporium for the products of the mountain ranges. The Jibel Tur, which is seldom visited, is inhabited chiefly by Syrian Christians, or Jacobites. They lead an independent life, and although nominally subject to the Patriarch of Antioch, they are free from ecclesiastical interference. There is in this district a greater air of comfort and security than is observable elsewhere in the rural districts of the Ottoman empire, which may be attributed to its exemption from war, its inaccessibility, and its distance from places of importance, having preserved it from hostile incursions. There are many Mussulmen villages in the district, and in some the population is partly Christian, partly Mahomedan. No intermarriages take place. The Moslems complain of the want of religion in their Christian neighbours, and the latter complain of the arbitrary conduct of the Moslems in preventing intermarriages, and of their domestic tyranny to their females. Mediah, the principal town of the district, is the head quarters of the Christians, and no Moslems reside there excepting the governor. Their principal complaint now is the tardiness of justice, and of the protection and equality introduced by the Tanzimat: their chief desire being to be allowed to carry out their own wild notions of right and justice. The sheikh complained that his daughter had been decoyed away and murdered, and although he had succeeded in capturing the murderers, the governor held them in confinement, and would not allow him to kill them with his own hand. The delay in carrying out the decrees of justice arises from the Tanzimat requiring a reference of all such cases to Constantinople before execution of the sentence. A short discussion arose at the conclusion of the lecture, in the course of which it was stated that last year a firman was issued empowering the pashas to inflict punishment without referring the case to Constantinople.

BRITISH ARCHAEOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.—Feb. 22nd.—S. R. Solly, F.R.S., F.S.A., V.-P., in the chair. Mr. Warwick King, of Tredegar-square, and Mrs. Percival, of Highbury-park, were elected Associates. Presents to the library were received from Mr. Halliwell, Mr. Ellis, Mr. Jones, Mr. Freeman, and Mr. Netherclift. The Rev. Mr. Hugo exhibited a very fine stone celt, belonging to the second division of his arrangement of these instruments, taken from the bed of the Thames in October last. Mr. Gunston exhibited three specimens of ecaustic tile, the oldest of which was from Dorchester Abbey, and the latest from St. Bartholomew's. Mr. Elliott exhibited a remarkably large and fine Roman urn, which had formerly belonged to the Rev. R. Spurgeon, of Norwich, and was obtained by him from Caistor. It contained a large quantity of human bones, which had undergone cremation. Mr. E. also ex-

hibited a Roman lamp, from the same place; it was of terra cotta, and represented a gladiator. Mr. Palin produced a large collection of keys, spoons, shears, a sword, knife, &c., belonging to various periods, which had been found during the past year, in forming the new sewers at Greenwich. There were five good specimens of keys belonging to the fifteenth century, and a pewter spoon of Elizabeth. The short sword was also of this time. Mr. Scott exhibited two drawings made by him from two fragments of sepulchral slabs lately discovered on the site of the church of St. Benet Fink, Threadneedle-street. One of these was taken out of one of the old foundation walls, the design upon it being a shaft supporting a circle, together with an interlaced ornament not frequently seen on Saxon and early Norman sculpture. A slab resembling this was found in 1810 at Cambridge, and is described in the 'Archæologia,' vol. xvii. The other slab was found twenty feet on the south side of the church, and at a depth of fifteen feet from the surface; it had a raised trefoil-headed cross, and the remains of an inscription in Longobardic characters, which was read as, "[Of your charity] for the soul of William Brun pray a paternoster." Mr. H. S. Cuming read the first paper of an intended series illustrative of 'Stone Implements,' and exhibited a fine collection of specimens of the axe, adze, and hammer, to which the present communication was confined. He pointed out the importance of carefully studying the works of savage nations who still retain the use of stone instruments, with a view of better comprehending the lithic relics discovered in the Britannic islands, suggesting that in the islands of the Pacific Ocean may yet be found a reflex of the habits and mode of life of our own rude ancestors. Mr. Cuming described in detail the more simple form of the axe or celt, making a division between it and the adze, which had been overlooked by antiquaries, and he enumerated the different kinds of mauls, axe-hammers, and axes with perforations for handles, and closed his examination of the European division by condemning the theory of Thoracius, who contended that these things were mere emblems of the power of Thor, the mighty thunder-god of the north. Having alluded to the asserted discovery of stone implements in India, Mr. Cuming proceeded to view the specimens obtained from the sepulchral mounds of North America; thence to the war-axes and martels of the Yookut of Nootka Sound, and of the axes and clubs armed with stone blades of the ancient and modern inhabitants of South America. The axes, adzes, &c., of the savages of the oceanic regions were also dwelt upon, special mention being made of the terrible meri of the New Zealanders, and of the curiously hefted adzes from the Hervey's Group. Mr. Cuming's observations were not confined to a notice of the several forms of implements in each quarter of the globe, but extended to the races to whom they were referable. A short discussion, principally relating to the divisions proposed, took place, and was adjourned to the next meeting.

GEOLICAL.—Feb. 1st.—Professor E. Forbes, President, in the chair. C. R. des Ruffières, Esq.; A. G. Gray, Jun., Esq.; G. M. Stephen, Esq.; and E. H. Sheppard, Esq., were elected Fellows. The following communications were read:—1. 'On the Geology of the Gold-bearing district of Merionethshire,' by Professor A. C. Ramsay, F.G.S. The part of Merionethshire referred to in this paper lies between Dolgelli and the Moelwyn and Manod range, north of Ffestiniog. Gold was discovered in 1836 in this region, in a copper-bearing lode, near Tyn-y-groes, in very minute quantities. In 1843 it was found in Cwm Eisen in some quantity, but heretofore that mine, though often wrought, has never yielded a steady and profitable supply. Last spring a shaft was sunk at Dol-y-frwyng on a lode in search of lead. The lode was soon found to contain gold visibly diffused through the quartz in threads and grains in an unusual quantity. This lode runs north-north-west through a country com-

posed of talcose schist, through which a mass of greenstone has been intruded. The quartz is saccharoid, and contains much iron pyrites, chlorite, and soft decomposing talcose matter. Below and above it are the ordinary Lingula flags of the Lower Silurian rocks. Numerous greenstone dykes penetrate these beds and the underlying Cambrian grits in all directions. Gold has since this discovery been detected in many other quartz lodes (with a little lead and copper) between Dolgelli and Moelwyn. They all lie in the Lingula series. The paper concluded with some remarks on the probable occurrence of auriferous drift in the valley of the Mawddach (traversing the district referred to), especially below the confluence of this river with the Afon Wen. 2. 'On Auriferous Quartz in North Cornwall,' by S. R. Pattison, Esq., F.G.S. In the parish of Davidstow, in the north of Cornwall, slate rocks, with veins of coarse quartz, and interrupted by trap dykes, sweep round the northern flank of the granite boss of Roughtor. These slates are a prolongation of the Petherwyn beds, and belong to the Upper Devonian series. In the quartz veins of these slates the author sought for and discovered gold. In some places the quartz has ferruginous partings, and contains 'gossan.' It is this quartz, in the vicinity of trappian intrusive rock, that was found to be auriferous. 3. 'On the Physical Geology of the Himalayas,' by Captain R. Strachey, F.G.S. This communication treated at large of the structure of the great range of elevated table-land in Central Asia, the southern border of which is known as the Himalayas. This southern border supplies the sources of the great rivers of Hindostan, and forms the 'Indian watershed,' whilst the northern border of this great Tibetan table-land is known as the Karakoram Mountains, Tsoumling, &c., and forms the 'Turkish watershed.' The relations of these two great parallel 'watershed' bands to each other, to the central part of the elevated region, and to the junction of the mountain masses with the plains of Turkistan on the north, and of Hindostan on the south, involve important considerations of the physical structure of the whole elevated mass, which can be sufficiently elucidated only by means of maps and diagrams.

February 22nd.—Professor E. Forbes, President, in the chair. C. Lindsay, Esq., C. H. B. Hambley, Esq., and J. A. Caley, Esq., were elected Fellows. The following communication was read:—'On the Geology of the Mayence Basin,' by W. J. Hamilton, Esq., Sec. G. S. In the first part of his paper the author described the stratigraphical position of the tertiary deposits of the neighbourhood of Mayence, and the sequence of their arrangement. The whole formation rests on red sandstone rocks belonging to the carboniferous or the earliest new red sandstone period, the *rothe-totde-liegende* of the Germans. The lowermost bed of the tertiary series consists of marine sands and quartzose conglomerates, containing, in places, a great abundance of fossil remains. This is overlaid by a thick deposit of blue clay, which appears, from the evidence of its fossil contents, to have been deposited in a shallow brackish-water basin. Over this is a considerable thickness of calcareous beds, divided into cerithium limestone and littorinella limestone, the former constituting the lowest portion of the series. These are succeeded by the upper blue clay, or brown-coal formation, showing greater evidence of a freshwater character. The uppermost bed of the series is an ossiferous sandstone, apparently deposited in lacustrine hollows, or ponds, on the surface of the underlying littorinella limestone. In the second portion of the paper the author stated the fossil contents of the beds, and showed the great resemblance existing between the lowest marine sands near Weinheim and the middle portion of the Limburg beds of Belgium, and then endeavoured to show that, whereas they evidently belong to the middle tertiary series, they should rather be referred to the lower Miocene than to the upper Eocene, if geologists are determined to preserve this nomenclature, inasmuch as they are the evidence of the commencement of a new rather than the termination of an old state of things. In the third and concluding

ing portion of the paper the author endeavoured to ascertain what was the ancient geographical condition of the sea in which these beds were deposited, and what was its connexion with the then existing ocean. He considers that a communication must have existed between the Mediterranean and the North Sea, that the communication with the Mediterranean was first closed by a partial rising of the Alps; and subsequently, that with the North Sea, by various volcanic outbursts in the northern parts of Germany. After which the water of this lacustrine basin became brackish, and gradually less saline, until at length they were fitted for the existence of freshwater mollusca. In process of time the water continued rising and filling up the basin, until it overflowed the lowest point of the surrounding hills, and, Niagara-like, formed for itself an outlet through the gorge through which the Rhine now flows.

ANTIQUARIES.—*Feb. 23rd.*—Viscount Mahon, President, in the chair. The announcement of the Council proposing the discontinuance of the anniversary dinner was again read from the chair. The Rev. J. Collingwood Bruce, Mr. Henry Glassford Potter, Mr. William Harvey, and Mr. J. Tattersall Auckland, were respectively admitted into the Society; and Mr. Thomas Battam, Mr. John Timbs, and Mr. R. Cradock Nichols, were severally balloted for, and elected Fellows. Mr. Joseph Mayer exhibited about sixty examples of personal ornaments, forming a portion of the much-talked-of Faussett Collection of Anglo-Saxon Antiquities, of which he has just become the proprietor. Among these was the very large circular fibula of filigree gold and vitrified paste, which has been delineated by Douglas. The Rev. J. Collingwood Bruce then read his remarks on the excavations made last summer at Housestead's Milecastle, on the line of the Roman wall (Boreovicus). These excavations were made under the direction of Mr. John Clayton, the liberal and enlightened proprietor of the land on which these ruins stand. Boreovicus is situated thirty miles west of Newcastle-upon-Tyne. The excavations had brought to light the fact that Housesteads was in form a parallelogram, fifty-eight feet by fifty, and it appears that these castella were not roofed. At the foot of the cliff below the castle an altar was discovered, inscribed "To the God Cocidius." A circular ruin outside the camp had been explored, and was considered to have been an amphitheatre constructed for the entertainment of the soldiers of the garrison.

R. S. OF LITERATURE.—*Feb. 22nd.*—William Tooke, Esq., Treasurer, in the chair. Francis Bennoch, Esq., and James Hunt, Esq., were elected Members of the Society. Mr. Vaux read a paper, communicated by Mr. Buller, on 'Egypt and Ancient Italy,' the object of which was to show that there was in very early times a considerable connexion between these two countries, and that Italy has borrowed the names of many of its local deities, with a considerable number of individual words in its language, from the ancient language of Egypt. Thus Mr. Buller supposes that 'Satur-nus' may be derived from 'Seten-ra,' and 'farina,' 'fruges,' 'frumentum,' from 'Nafri.'

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

- Monday.**—Geographical, 8½ p.m.—(1. Extracts of a letter from Capt. Spratt, R.N., H.M.S. *Spitfire*, Smyrna, on the West Part of the Island of Crete, communicated by Col. Leake, F.R.G.S.; 2. Report on the Russian Caravan Trade with China, by Harry Parkes, Esq., F.R.G.S.; 3. Variation of the Magnetic Needle at Aden, by Capt. S. B. Haines, I.N., communicated by the Hon. East India Company's Service; 4. Report on the Proposed North Australian Expedition, by Mr. J. S. Wilson.)
- Tuesday.**—Royal Academy, 8 p.m.—(Sir Richard Westmacott on Sculpture.)
- Wednesday.**—Medical and Chirurgical, 8½ p.m.—(Mr. Yates' paper on Decimal Coinage, and Description of Martin's Improved Jacquard Machine, by Mr. E. Laforest.)
- Zoological.**—9 p.m.
- Syro-Egyptian.**—7½ p.m.—(Samuel Sharpe, Esq., on the Ground Plan of the Temple of Jerusalem.)
- Russell Institution.**—8 p.m.—(The British Museum Swiney Lecture on Geology.)
- Royal Institution.**—3 p.m.—(Professor Tyndall on Heat.)

- Wednesday.**—Statistical, 3 p.m.—(Anniversary Meeting, the Earl Fitzwilliam, K.G., President, will take the chair.)
- Society of Arts.**—8 p.m.—(Mr. T. Egan on Machines for Dressing Flour, with a description of a New Machine for that purpose.)
- London Institution.**—7 p.m.
- Ethnological.**—8½ p.m.—(On the probable origin of the American Indians, with particular reference to the Caribs, by James Kennedy, Esq., late H.B.M.'s Judge in the Mixed Court at Havana; 2. On the Kamilarvi Dialect and Tribe of Australians, by Rev. W. Ridley.)

- Thursday.**—Royal, 8½ p.m.
- Antiquary.**—8 p.m.
- Numismatic.**—7 p.m.
- Royal Institution.**—3 p.m.—(Professor Wharton Jones on Animal Physiology.)

- Friday.**—Philological, 8 p.m.

- Royal Institution.**—8½ p.m.—(S. H. Ward, M.D., on the Growth of Plants in closely Glazed Cases.)

- Saturday.**—Medical, 8 p.m.
- Botanic.**—4 p.m.
- Asiatic.**—8 p.m.—(Professor Wilson on Buddha and Buddhism.)
- Royal Institution.**—3 p.m.—(Professor W. A. Miller on the Chemistry of the Non-Metallic Elements.)

VARIETIES.

Indian Deodar.—At a recent meeting of the Horticultural Society, Dr. Royle, who has lately reported to the Commissioners of Woods and Forests on the value of this and other woods, exhibited a slab of Deodar timber, 18 feet 6 inches long, 4 feet 6 inches wide, and 4 inches thick, recently imported by the East-India Company for submission to European criticism. The Court of Directors have imported for many years an ample and gratuitous supply of the seeds of this tree. The Deodar is a description of timber ranking, it is said, among the highest of the class of firs and deals, being clean from end to end, massive, free from knots, towards the outside so close grained that it was difficult to count its rings of growth, and fragrant as sandal wood. Dr. Royle produced a report from Mr. Wilson Saunders and other gentlemen of Lloyd's, pronouncing it to be well adapted to shipbuilding, ranking between the best kind of larch and hard woods. One of the advantages which planters may look to in the Deodar is rapidity of growth. The Indian slab, although four feet six inches in diameter, was not more than one hundred and ninety years old. If Deodar wood grows as fast in England as in the north-west of India, the trees would be fit to fell in thirty years, at which time they would be twenty-six inches in diameter.—*Builder.*

Size of London.—London extends over an area of 78,029 acres or 122 square miles, and the number of its inhabitants, rapidly increasing, was two millions three hundred and sixty-two thousand two hundred and thirty-six (2,362,236) on the day of the last census. A conception of this vast mass of people may be formed by the fact, that if the metropolis was surrounded by a wall, having a north gate, a south gate, an east gate, and a west gate, and each of the four gates was of sufficient width to allow a column of persons to pass out freely four abreast, and a peremptory necessity required the immediate evacuation of the city, it could not be accomplished under four-and-twenty hours, by the expiration of which time the head of each of the four columns would have advanced a no less distance than seventy-five miles from their respective gates, all the people being in close file, four deep.—*Cheshire's Results of the Census.*

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|---------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------------|
| £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. | £ s. d. |
| 20 | 0 18 2 | 0 19 2 | 0 1 3 | 1 1 5 | 1 2 8 | 1 18 2 |
| 30 | 1 3 9 | 5 2 | 6 8 | 1 9 4 | 1 10 0 | 2 10 5 |
| 40 | 1 11 10 | 1 13 9 | 1 15 10 | 1 18 1 | 2 0 6 | 3 8 3 |

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|------|---------|---------|---------|
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